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ILLUSTRATED

SCHOOL HISTORY

OF THE

WORLD,

FROM THE EARLIEST AGES TO THE PRESENT TIME:

ACCOMPANIED WITH

NUMEROUS MAPS AND ENGRAVINGS.

BY

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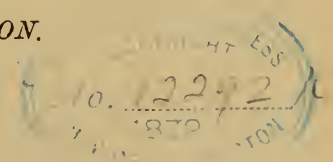
REVISED EDITION.

NEW YORK:

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY,

549 AND 551 BROADWAY.

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PREFACE.

A GENERAL HISTORY for schools which should be at the same time comprehensive in its scope and condensed within moderate limits, simple in style and thorough in treatment, interesting in its matter and attractive in its external dress, fresh, accurate, and well-arranged, has long seemed to the writer to be a *desideratum* in our educational literature. Directed to the subject by his studies while in charge of the department of Modern History at Columbia College for several years past, he has aimed to produce such a work in the volume now presented to the public.

In preparing a brief manual like this, the selection of what is really important from the great mass of material at the compiler's disposal is perhaps the most difficult part of the task and the severest test of judgment. In this matter the author has tried to exercise the greatest care, leaving entirely out of view insignificant details which are learned only to be forgotten, but not dropping any important link in the great chain—giving each period and nation its due share of notice, without allowing it to encroach on the limits of some other equally important.

While events necessarily constitute the great staple of history, there are other matters—sketches of the institutions and domestic life of the people, their distinguished men, literature, etc.—that must be interwoven to make the fabric complete, to give that clear idea of the condition of the nations at different periods which is necessary to an appreciation of their improvement and growth. Accordingly we have not confined ourselves to a mere account of revolutions and wars, the rise and fall of states, but have endeavored also to show the inner life and intellectual development of the people.

Great pains have been taken to insure accuracy in the statement of facts, and to embody the latest views respecting ancient Oriental countries, deduced from the investigations of the last quarter-century. We are not among those who would destroy the old landmarks, and pass over

as myths all those charming stories of antiquity which have been the delight of generations; but we have tried to treat ancient as well as modern nations in the light of the most recent historical discoveries. Many dates of the early chronology are of course uncertain; where we have attempted to fix these, we have been guided by what has seemed to be the weight of authority.

As regards arrangement, the author has pursued that plan which seems to him the only one that can give a connected and satisfactory view of general history. Instead of following one nation separately from its rise to its fall, or for a certain fixed period, and then passing to another to construct a similarly disconnected skeleton, he has aimed at a synchronistic arrangement, presenting great events in their chronological order, each in connection with the nation that was the prominent actor in it, but at the same time grouping contemporaneous nations round this central figure, and giving their respective histories together, so far as they bear on the event in question.

Designing this book for all classes of public or private schools of a grade sufficiently advanced to enter on the study of general history, the author has spared no labor to make the subject inviting by presenting it in a clear, simple, and attractive style. He has thrown in pleasant stories, which relieve the narrative, while sometimes they give a more vivid view of men and manners than whole pages of description would do. He has introduced maps freely, and pictorial illustrations which, it is believed, must commend themselves to the taste of all. In conclusion, he can only express the hope that his labors may be found of use to the young, in facilitating their studies in this department, and inspiring them with a taste for historical reading.

NEW YORK, Dec. 4, 1875,



In the figured pronunciation, *a* is to be sounded like *a* in *bat*; *ā* like *a* in *India*; *eh* like *e* in *bet*; *ī* like *i* in *bin*; *ō* almost like *u* in *fur*; *öö* like *oo* in *book*; *ōw* like *ow* in *cow*; *ü* like the French *u*; *gh* like *g* in *go*; *nʳ* like the nasal *n* in French.

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HISTORY OF THE WORLD.

INTRODUCTION.

HISTORY is a narration of past events. The history of the world begins with the Creation. It traces the origin, growth, and decline of the nations that have successively appeared on the stage of action, as well as the causes that have led to their greatness and their decay ; it treats also of their social life, arts, literature, and systems of religion.

Chronol'ogy is the science which arranges the events of history in the order of their occurrence, and determines the date of each. Dates have to be reckoned from some fixed point of time, and different nations have adopted different eras.

The Greeks, in giving their dates, used Olym'piads, or periods of four years intervening between successive celebrations of the Olym'pic Games (see page 51). The first Olympiad commenced with the victory of Coroëbus (*ko-re'bus*) in the foot-race (776 B. C.). An event was set down as happening in the first, second, third, or fourth year of a certain Olympiad.

The Romans adopted as their chronological era the date of the founding of their capital (753 B. C.). The letters A. U. C., accompanying Roman dates, signify "in

the year of the founding of the city" (*anno urbis conditæ*).

The birth of Christ was first used as a chronological era by an Italian abbot, Dennis the Little, in the sixth century; in the seventh it was introduced into England and France, and it has since been adopted in all Christian countries. Time before Christ is denoted by the letters B. C.; time after Christ, by A. D. (*anno domini*, in the year of our Lord). It is now, however, generally believed that the Christian Era was by mistake fixed four years later than the birth of Christ.

The Jews, not recognizing the Saviour, number their years from the Creation, and some Christian writers use the same era for dates before Christ. The letters A. M. (*anno mundi*) mean "in the year of the world."

Mohammedan nations reckon from the Hegira (*he-ji'rä*), or Flight, 622 A. D.,—the year in which the founder of their religion fled from Mecca.

History may be distinguished as Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern. Ancient History extends from the Creation, 4004 B. C., to the overthrow of the Roman Empire in Italy by northern barbarians, 476 A. D. Mediæval History relates the events of the Middle or Dark Ages; by which are meant the thousand years following the fall of Rome, and extending to a new era marked by the revival of learning and various great inventions and discoveries. With this new era Modern History begins.

The principal sources of history are, the Scriptures, which furnish the only authentic records of primeval times; the works of uninspired writers; and inscriptions and pictures on rocks, tombs, and the walls of temples. Important information is also frequently obtained from coins, medals, broken weapons, architectural ruins, etc.

Particularly valuable to later historians have been the hieroglyphics, or "sacred carvings," found on the obelisks

and other monuments of ancient Egypt. The meaning of the Egyptian characters was long a mystery, but was at length ascertained by means of patient study of the Rosetta Stone. This celebrated stone, discovered in 1799 by a French officer in Egypt, contains equivalent inscriptions in Egyptian and Greek characters; and a comparison of these, the meaning of the Greek text being known, has furnished scholars with an invaluable key to inscriptions in which important historical facts were locked up.

Of the five races which constitute the population of the globe, it is of the Caucasian that history has principally to treat. The Ethiopian and the Malay race make little or no figure in the annals of the past; the American race appears on the stage only for a short period during the first explorations and settlements of the New World; of the Mongolians, the Chinese, Turks, Tartars, and Magyars or Hungarians, have from time to time mingled in the great drama, but for the most part have played no conspicuous part. It is the Caucasian race that has shown the greatest intellectual force, that has made the most progress in civilization, literature, science, and art, that has swayed the great empires of the world.

Taking a general view of the events we are to look at in detail, we see, Man at first sinless and happy: Then disobedient to God, and fallen: Then growing in wickedness, till at last overwhelmed by divine wrath in a flood: Noah and his family saved, and from them the world repeopled: At first one community and tongue: Then the common language confounded by the Almighty, and men scattered: Great nations formed: War in the ascendant: Despotism rampant: The Assyrian, Babylonian, Persian, Macedonian, and Roman empires, successively enjoying almost world-wide sway: Then luxury, effeminacy, and misrule doing their work: Ancient states and cities losing their prestige: Barbarian prowess overthrowing corrupted

civilization: New but ruder kingdoms formed: Ignorance and vice settling down on the nations: A thousand years of darkness, relieved here and there by bright but short-lived flashes: At length gleams of light appearing: Day dawning: A gradual but finally complete intellectual revolution: Learning revived: The restless mind of man achieving further triumphs: A New World added to the Old: New nations springing into life: Inventions and discoveries whose name is legion: Social life regenerated: The thirst for conquest subordinated to the arts of peace: The voice of the people heard: Even conservative nations of the Mongolian race waking from their sleep and asking for light: Education recognized as the lever that is to move the world.



CHAPTER I.

THE MORNING OF THE WORLD.

ANCIENT HISTORY begins with the Creation.

For the history of the Creation, Deluge (2348 B. C.), and Dispersion (2247 B. C.), the reader is referred to the Scriptural narrative. The precise time of these early events cannot be determined; still the student needs fixed dates to connect with great historical landmarks, and in this volume the chronology of Usher is followed, as that given in the margin of our Bible and most generally received. It is proper to say, however, that recent researches in Oriental history indicate for these events a much greater antiquity than Usher assigns them.

The Creation.—Within the last hundred years, Geology, the science which treats of the earth's structure, has brought to light new facts relating to the Creation. Among other things, it teaches us that the six *days* spoken

of in the Bible were not days of *twenty-four hours*, but *ages*; or else were preceded by an indefinite period of time reaching back to "the beginning."

Our earth appears once to have been a ball of melted matter surrounded by a hot gaseous atmosphere. The outer part of this molten mass gradually cooled, and a crust was thus formed. The vapor in the air was next condensed into a great ocean, spreading over the whole



IDEAL LANDSCAPE OF A PREHISTORIC AGE.

globe. Under the action of the fiery heat within, floods of melted rock from time to time forced their way through the solid barriers that confined them. Thus continents and islands were upheaved, and vast hollows formed, into which the waters of the primeval ocean receded.

Our knowledge of the plants and animals of the geological ages preceding man's creation, is derived from

their fossil remains or traces left on rocks. Gigantic shrubs now unknown once flourished; strange fish and huge reptiles swarmed in the waters; and immense animals, much larger than any modern species, roamed over the earth.

The Bible narrative of the Creation, the Fall of Man, and the Deluge, has been corroborated in a remarkable manner by tablets recently found among the ruins of Nineveh, copied from Chalde'an records dating back to 2000 B. C. There are indeed minor points of difference, as might be expected; the only wonder is that the sacred and profane accounts agree so closely. The Avesta, or ancient Persian Bible, hands down a similar history of the creation of the universe; while legends of the Deluge have been current among various nations—even among the scattered Indian tribes of America.

Primitive Communities.—As to what precise site was first occupied by mankind, we can only speculate. The science of language, however, carries us back into prehistoric times, and points us to three original divisions of the human race, two of them settled in south-western Asia, the other a nomadic host occupying the upland plains of the interior—and this just at the dim dawn of authentic history.

The valley of the Euphrates and Tigris, including the Shi'nar of the Bible (see Map, p. 16), was at this remote day the home of the SEMITES (a name derived from Shem, their ancestor). North-east of the Semites, and separated from them by the broad table-land of Iran (*e'rahn*) and the Hindoo Koosh Mountains, lived the ARYANS; and north of these, over the steppes of Tartary and Russia, wandered a third branch of the human family,—the TURANIANS. The history of Europe in these primeval times is a sealed book. It is probable that the first to break the solitude of its forests were Turanians; they seem to have travelled

into Finland on their dog-sleds in pursuit of the reindeer, to have made permanent settlements on the shores of the Baltic, and to have reared their dwellings on piles above the waters of the Swiss lakes.

We have said that the science of language raises the veil that hides the past. By tracing one hundred and fifty of the principal tongues spoken in Europe and Asia to three distinct parent stems, it has established the facts just stated; while many allusions in extant works of ancient Oriental literature enable us to locate thus minutely the primitive Aryans and Semites.

The Aryans possess the greatest interest for us, inasmuch as they are our ancestors,—the Japhetic fathers of those nations of the Caucasian race that for centuries enjoyed the dominion of the then-known world, as well as those that are now foremost in physical and intellectual power.

Here, again, the study of language comes to our aid, and reveals the arts, social life, and religion, of these ancient Aryans, in whose poetical tongue, now known to us only by the words common to its early derivatives, we must recognize the remote parent of our own English. Before 2000 B. C., they had attained a high degree of civilization. Not only were they stock-raisers and agriculturists, as their name Aryan (*tiller of the earth*) implies, but also expert workmen in various handicrafts, as weaving, metallurgy, and the manufacture of pottery. Nor were they strangers to architecture, navigation, mathematics, and astronomy. Marriage was regarded as a sacred contract, polygamy being unknown. Children were the light of the household, as evinced by the meaning of the names—boy, *bestower of happiness*; girl, *she that causes rejoicing*; brother, *supporter*; sister, *friendly*.

A patriarchal form of government prevailed; that is, the heads of families exercised control—subject, however,

to a council of seven elders, whose chief was recognized as king. From his decisions there was an appeal to heaven in the ordeal of fire and water. The ancient Aryans worshipped a personal God.

CHAPTER II.

FOUNDING OF EARLY KINGDOMS.

Migrations from Arya.—The original Aryan family rapidly increased, until its original domicile could no longer contain it. Its surplus population then wandered off in separate bodies, at different periods, to find new homes in distant climes.

The Celtic clans, Pelasgic tribes, Slavonians and Teutons, took a westerly course, and finally settled in different parts of Europe, after dispossessing their Turanian predecessors. At a later date the greater part of those who were left behind crossed the Hindoo Koosh range, and spread over the table-land of Iran, corresponding with modern Persia, Afghanistan (*ahf-gahn-is-tahn'*), and Beloochistan (*bel-oo-chis-tahn'*). From these sprung the Medes and Persians, as well as the Brahman Hindoos, whom a religious dispute led to separate from their brethren and migrate into the peninsula of India.

Thus the posterity of Ja'pheth (*expansion*) became the founders of Celtic Britain and France; Pelasgic Italy and Greece; Slavonic Russia, Poland, and Bohemia; Germany and Scandinavia; as well as of the Persian and Hindoo monarchies. Similarities of language show that all these nations had a common origin. They constitute the ARYAN, or INDO-EUROPEAN, branch of the Caucasian race, which has surpassed the other branches in mental activity, and has had most to do with shaping the world's history.

The Semitic Nations in remote antiquity surpassed all others in culture and power. They comprised the Hebrews, Phœnicians, and Carthaginians, who spoke the Hebraic branch of the Semitic mother-tongue; the Syrians and Assyrians; and the Arabians and Ethiopians, whose language was the musical Arabic. The Chaldeans, or Babylonians, were partly Semitic, partly Turanian; while the ancient Egyptians, judging from their language, had Aryan and Semitic blood mingled in their veins.

The earliest pages of the world's history are covered with the records of these venerable Semitic monarchies—records that have been disinterred during the last quarter-century, after lying concealed in the royal tombs of Egypt and the neglected ruins of Assyria for two or three thousand years. Already the history of the Orient has been rewritten in the light of these discoveries.

Three facts should be remembered in connection with the Semites : 1. That they were the pioneers in commerce and maritime enterprise ; 2. That to them the world is indebted for the wonderful invention of alphabetic writing; 3. That they were the branch chosen for keeping alive a knowledge of the true God.

The Turanians, unsettled, fierce, *swift horsemen* as their name implies, were less conservative than the Semites, less cultured than the Aryans. It is true that they invented the cuneiform characters, specially adapted for chiselling on rocks, and supposed by some to be the oldest vehicles ever used for the expression of thought; but the inscriptions thus recorded were fragmentary, their roving habits preventing them from developing a systematic literature. We can, therefore, only conjecture their employments to have been such as would naturally belong to a wandering, pastoral, or predatory people.

Exactly where the Chinese and Japanese belong in this classification of races we do not know, for the peculiarities

of their languages do not justify us in placing them among Aryans, Semites, or Turanians.

2000 B. C.—Approximate date of the birth of Abraham (1996). Egyptian, Chaldean, Assyrian, Chinese, and other monarchies, established. Sidon and Tyre flourishing cities. Aryans, descended from Japheth, in the plain of Iran, and the ancient home beyond the Hindoo Koosh. Turanians wandering over the plains of Europe and Asia.

CHAPTER III.

THE GREAT ASIATIC NATIONS.

The Chaldean Monarchy.—Chaldea, or Babylonia, was one of the first monarchies, founded by Nimrod about 2234 B. C. It lay north of the Persian Gulf, and was watered by the rivers Euphra'tes and Ti'gris. (See Map.) The city of Babylon was built near the Tower of Babel, from which it was called.

Nimrod, whose name signifies *impious rebel*, was a mighty hunter. A bold, unscrupulous chief, he overthrew the original patriarchal form of government, and established despotism in its stead. Some suppose that he introduced

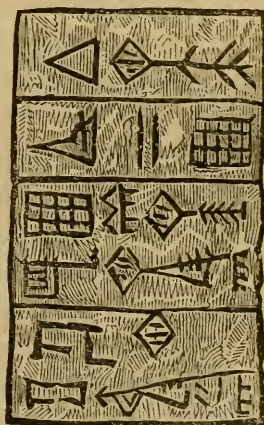


the worship of the heavenly bodies, and that after his death he was adored by his subjects under the name of Bel, or Be'lus.

The most that we know of Chaldea for several centuries is that it maintained an obstinate struggle for the ascendancy with the growing power of Assyria, but was at last obliged to acknowledge the supremacy of its rival. Attempts made from time to time by different monarchs to assert their independence were unsuccessful; and as the result of one of these revolts, in 683 B. C. Babylon was sacked. The accession of Nab'onassar to the throne in 747 B. C. is made memorable by the adoption of this year as a fixed time to date from. It is known as the Era of Nabonassar.

The Chaldeans were pioneers in the arts and sciences. They were well versed in arithmetic, astronomy, and particularly architecture, using bricks for their buildings and the bitu'men of the country for mortar. They excelled in the manufactures of the loom, exhibited great skill in the engraving of precious stones and the fashioning of ornaments and domestic utensils, were acquainted with the use of letters, and stamped their legends on bricks. Commercial pursuits early engaged their attention; and the "ships of Ur," one of their cities (see Map), traded with the neighboring countries.

The Assyrian Empire.—Nin'evéh, the capital of the Assyrian Empire, situated north of Babylon, on the river Ti'gris, was built by Asshur, who "went forth out of the land of Shinar." Little is known of Assyrian history till the time of Tig-lath-nin (*tig'lath-e-nin'*), supposed to be the Greek Ni'-



CHALDEAN BRICK.

nus, who reigned 1270-1250 B. C. He extended his sway over Babylon, and caused to be inscribed on his signet "Conqueror of Babylonia."

The ambitious king Tig'lath-Pile'ser I. (*př-le'zer*) also made extensive conquests, but his brilliant reign was followed by a long period of obscurity. The darkness was finally dispelled in the ninth century.* This seems to have been the age of the "lady Semir'amis," the reputed conqueror of the East and one of the greatest legendary characters in history. Semiramis was probably a Babylonian princess, who wedded an Assyrian king and thus strengthened her husband's claim to her native land. The marvellous tales of her conquests and public works are regarded as fabulous by later historians.

The Assyrian Empire attained the height of its glory in the century preceding its fall. Tiglath-Pileser II., who reigned until 727, took Damascus in Syria, and received the homage of many kings. Shalmane'ser IV. several times invaded Palestine, and at last laid siege to Samaria. This city surrendered to Sargon, the next monarch, who also engaged in successful wars with Egypt and Babylonia.

Sennacherib (*sen-nak'e-rib*), the son of Sargon (705-680 B. C.), was one of the greatest of the Ninevite kings. After many victorious expeditions, Sennacherib blasphemously threatened Jerusalem with a great army; when, in one night, "the angel of the Lord smote in the camp of the Assyrians an hundred fourscore and five thousand."

Sardanapa'lus, grandson of Sennacherib, extended his empire beyond all former limits. His chief pleasure was to encounter the lion, and fierce beasts were let loose in his park to fall before his arrows and spear. Art and

* The ninth century B. C. embraces the years from 900 to 800. The *beginning* of the ninth century would be the years 900, 899, etc.; the *close* of the ninth century, 801, 802, etc.

literature, however, were not neglected. A magnificent palace was built at Nineveh, a royal library was established, and under Sardanapalus Assyria reached the zenith of her greatness.

Sar'acus, the son of this mighty king, was dissolute and effeminate. He is said to have dwelt in his palace, imitating the dress and employments of his wives and female slaves. At last the Medes and Babylonians revolted, and besieged him in his capital. Finding that resistance was vain, Saracus built a funeral-pile, and burned himself up with his wives and treasures (625 B. C.). Nineveh was destroyed, and the conquerors divided between them the proud Assyrian Empire. The Babylonians now obtained the supremacy of western Asia.

ASSYRIAN ARTS.—Nineveh was never rebuilt. Vast mounds, which for centuries covered the ruins of its once splendid edifices, have recently been excavated; and the wonderful remains, sculptures, and pictured walls, there found, have contributed much to our knowledge of the ancient Assyrians. Judging from these, they were skilled in engraving, metallurgy, embroidery, and the manufacture of glass. Their palaces were ornamented with elaborate sculptures, prominent among which were colossal bulls with wings and human heads. Beautiful bass-reliefs represent the every-day life of the people, and many written memorials of the nation remain on slabs and obelisks.

Other interesting specimens of Assyrian art are vases, bronzes, seals, glass-ware, enamelled bricks, carved ivory, and engraved gems. The Assyrians were acquainted with the arch, the lever, and the magnifying-lens; indeed, toward the close of their empire, according to Rawlinson, "in all the arts and appliances of life they were nearly on a par with ourselves."

The Assyrians were idolaters. They were engaged in



ASSYRIAN PALACE RESTORED.

almost perpetual war. Among their exercises was hunting the lion and wild-bull.

The Babylonian Monarchy (Map, p. 16), after the conquest of Nineveh, maintained its ascendancy as capital of the eastern world for nearly a century (625–538 B. c.). The greatest of its princes was Nebuchadnezzar (604–561 B. c.), who triumphed over the Jews and Egyptians, and made Babylon “the lady of kingdoms.” The capital, built on both sides of the Euphrates in the form of a square, was more than fifty miles in circuit. Its beautiful hanging gardens, and massive walls, 87 feet thick and 350 feet high, were counted among the Seven Wonders of the World.



ASSYRIAN WARRIOR.

These gardens, eight miles in circumference, Nebuchadnezzar constructed to delight his queen, who, tired of the monotonous landscape about her, pined for her native Median hills. They consisted of a succession of terraces, overtopping the city walls, and planted with trees and flowering shrubs. The whole was irrigated from a large lake on the top, which was filled by engines with water from the Euphrates. Across the river was the temple of Bel, decorated with the plundered wealth of the East.

Nebuchadnezzar was made so proud by his conquests and the grandeur of his capital that God deprived him of reason; he was driven out from among men, and ate grass like oxen. After seven years his understanding returned;

taught by this judgment, he once more gave honor to the Most High, and was re-established in his kingdom.

FALL OF BABYLON.—The last of the Babylonian kings was defeated before the walls of his capital by the Medes and Persians. His son Belshazzar was besieged in the city, which, however, was well provisioned and for a time defied their efforts. At length the enemy turned the Euphrates from its course, and entered the city through the bed of the stream, while the Babylonians were engaged in revelry, profanely drinking from the golden vessels which had been taken from the House of God at Jerusalem. At this very time the prophet Daniel was interpreting to their affrighted prince certain mysterious characters which suddenly appeared, written by the fingers of a man's hand upon the wall of his palace, announcing the overthrow of the kingdom. That same night the besiegers penetrated to the royal banquet-hall. Belshazzar was slain, and Babylonia became a province of the Persian Empire (538 B. C.). The proud capital is now a heap of ruins; and, as the prophet Isaiah predicted, wild beasts make their dens in its desolate houses.



BABYLONIAN SEAL.

CUSTOMS, ETC.—The Babylonians excelled in the manufacture of cotton and woolen fabrics. Their dress was a flounced robe, reaching to the feet; they wore long hair and turbans. Herod'otus tells of some strange customs as prevailing among them. Once a year the marriageable maidens in each village were collected and sold at auction as wives, the most beautiful bringing the highest prices. Then the ugly damsels were disposed of, with marriage-portions obtained from the sums paid for their fairer companions.

Physicians were unknown among them. When a man was taken ill, his friends laid him in the public square, to be examined by all who passed. When one came along who had had like symptoms himself, he prescribed such remedies as he had found beneficial in his own case.

India, which occupied the peninsula south of the Himalay'a Mountains, appears to have been inhabited in remote antiquity. About 1400 B. C., the valley of the Indus was overrun by an invading host from the plateau of Iran, the worshippers of Brah'ma, who ultimately extended their power and religion over the whole of Hindostan and Ceylon.

With them originated the sacred books called *Ve'das*, consisting of hymns to various deities, written in that polished language, as its name imports, the Sanscrit. The most ancient of these, the Rig-Veda, is the oldest existing Aryan work. It contains over a thousand hymns, composed in a simple but grand style, and addressed to thirty-three gods, prominent among whom are the sun and moon, fire, and the dawn. There is no allusion, however, to the corrupt rites associated at a later day with the religion of Brahma. From this work as a beginning, the Hindoos developed a literature so vast that the longest life, it has been computed, would not suffice for one to read all that it contains.

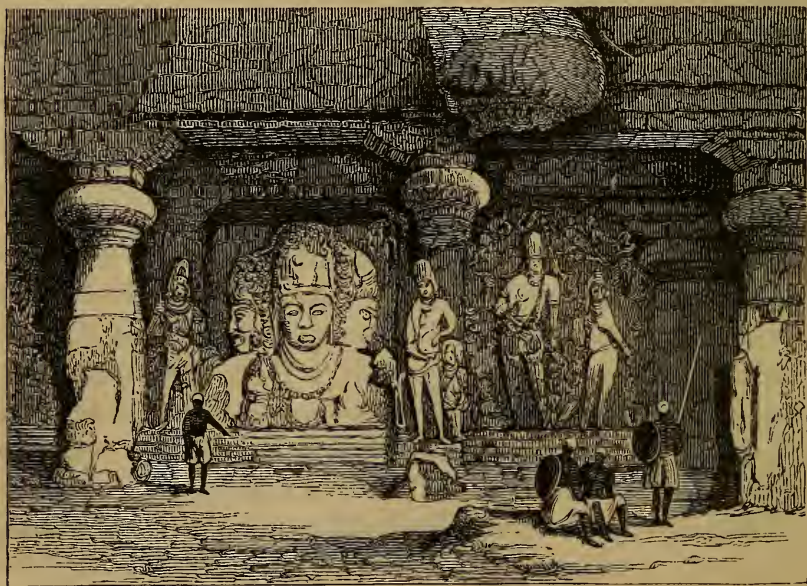
Two magnificent epics, composed about 1000 B. C., are the pride of Sanscrit literature. The subject of one is the Aryan conquest of lower Hindostan and Ceylon; that of the other, a legendary war of which Delhi (*del'le*) was the scene. Old ballads and tales were woven together to form these epics, but not until they had been modified so as to conform to the tenets of the Brahman faith.

A peculiar feature of Brahmanism was the institution of *caste*, according to which the people were divided into four classes, separated by impassable lines, and each hav-

ing its own duties and privileges. One of its leading doctrines was the transmigration of souls: that at death the spirits of the good passed into a higher order of beings, as a reward for their virtues; those of the wicked, into inferior animals, as a punishment for their crimes.

About 500 B. C. the simpler religion of Buddha arose, and contended with Brahmanism for centuries for the supremacy of India. The latter finally prevailed; and Buddhism, expelled for the most part from the peninsula, took refuge in the island of Ceylon, and diffused itself through regions to the east, as far as and including China. At the present day, Buddhism, with its grotesque idols and fanciful pago'das, its sacrifices of fruit, flowers, and incense, and its prayer-mills, is the religion of nearly one-fourth of the population of the world.

India was celebrated for its rich products, including diamonds, rubies, silk and cotton fabrics, which were eagerly sought after by early nations. Subterranean



INTERIOR OF AN INDIAN CAVE-TEMPLE.

temples with inscriptions and sculptures, pagodas cut out of solid stone, and rock-hewn grottoes, which must have employed thousands of workmen for centuries,—are the remains of Indian architecture.

China.—The Chinese claim for their empire the greatest antiquity. Fo-hi, generally regarded as its founder, was succeeded by Chin-nong, who invented the plough. The people then rapidly advanced in civilization. To one of their princesses belongs the honor of having first unravelled the cocoons of the silk-worm and woven the thread into a fabric.

Confucius (*kon-fu'she-us*), who flourished about 500 B. C., is the most distinguished personage of Chinese history. He became the great teacher of his countrymen, and by his elevated moral precepts, disseminated orally during his life and in writings which have been received almost as divine revelations by the Chinese and are still taught in their schools, has perhaps exerted a greater influence than any other purely human teacher.

An interesting anecdote of the youth of Confucius has been handed down. Becoming tired of study, he resolved to abandon it for some other pursuit. As he was returning from school one day with this determination, he noticed an old woman rubbing an iron bar on a whetstone; and, when he asked her what she was doing, learned that she was trying to replace her knitting-needle, which she had lost, by rubbing down the bar. Filled with admiration of her perseverance, the young student exclaimed, "Shall an old woman have more resolution than I, within whose reach are the highest honors of the empire?" He returned to his books with fresh vigor, and became, as we have seen, one of the greatest of sages.

About 250 B. C. was built the Great Wall of China, designed to protect the country from the Tartars. It extends along the northern and north-western frontier for

1,200 miles, is from fifteen to thirty feet in height, is wide enough for six horsemen to ride on abreast, and is surmounted by strong towers forty feet high. Tradition says that it used to be defended by a million soldiers. It was built by the Emperor Ching-Wang, who also expelled the Mongols and consolidated the empire.

1800 B. C.—Isaac yet living. Esau and Jacob 36 years old. Descendants of Ishmael in Arabia. Celts moving westward.



CHAPTER IV.

ANCIENT AFRICAN NATIONS.

Egypt.—Soon after the Deluge, the fertile valley of the Nile was settled by descendants of Ham. Historians record the name of Misraim, or Menes (*me'neez*), as the first monarch, or Pharaoh (*fa'ro*), of Egypt.

Several contemporaneous kingdoms appear to have been formed, the most powerful of which were Memphis and Thebes. These were conquered by a horde of invaders called "Shepherds," whose dominion lasted about 500 years. During their sway, Joseph and his kinsmen found a home in the land. A great national revolt headed by the Theban monarch finally broke out. The Shepherd Kings were expelled, and Thebes gained supreme dominion over all Egypt, 1525 B. C.

A brilliant period followed. Magnificent works of art were erected, and important conquests made. Thoth'mes III. carried on wars in Ethiopia and Asia, and is thought to have laid even Nineveh and Babylon under tribute. The remains of superb structures in all parts of Egypt still bear witness to his greatness.

Am'unoph III. was also noted for his conquests and for the grand temples which he erected. The site of one of these at Thebes is marked by the famous colossal statue called the Vocal Memnon, which was believed by the ancients to utter a mysterious sound at sunrise.

Sesostris, the most celebrated of the Pharaohs, lived in the thirteenth century. Aiming at universal empire, he carried his conquering arms into the heart of Africa, northward into Thrace, and as far east as India. The Ethiopians paid him tribute in ebony, gold, and elephants' tusks; and his fleet scoured the Indian waters. The Nile and the Red Sea were connected with a canal; a long wall was built to protect the eastern frontier; and everywhere monuments perpetuated the deeds of Sesostris the Great.

Under the successors of Sesostris Egypt declined, and about 730 B. C. it was conquered by the Ethiopians. It subsequently re-established its independence, and under Pharaoh Necho (*ne'ko*), 600 B. C., once more became powerful. Although much occupied in war, this enterprising prince labored to promote the commercial interests of the nation. He maintained fleets on the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, and under his auspices the Cape of Good



Hope was rounded, and Africa circumnavigated. The expedition returned to Egypt in the third year, through the Pillars of Hercules, now the Strait of Gibraltar. Food becoming scarce during the voyage, the sailors drew up their ships on shore and raised a crop of grain.

The last of the Pharaohs was overthrown by Camby'ses, King of Persia, 525 B. C., and Egypt was annexed as a dependency to that empire.

MONUMENTS OF EGYPT.—The valley of the Nile in Upper and Middle Egypt was in ancient times occupied by great cities, whose splendor is still attested by gigantic



PYRAMIDS AND SPHINX.

structures and massive ruins. Of these, the Pyramids, supposed to have been erected as tombs of the Egyptian kings, are the grandest monuments ever reared by man.

They are found in groups, and the most famous are those of Ghizeh (*ghe'zeh*), near Cairo (*ki'ro*). Here, rising 450 feet above the sand, stands the Great Pyramid, attributed to Cheops (*ke'ops*), who flourished perhaps 4,000 years ago. It is built of immense stone blocks, and its base covers about thirteen acres. We are told that 100,000 persons were compelled to work upon this pyramid at a time, fresh laborers supplying their places at the end of three months.

Near the Pyramids of Ghizeh is the Great Sphinx, or man-headed lion, a figure 188 feet long and 60 feet high, cut out of a projecting rock. Between its huge fore-paws were found the remains of a temple, in which sacrifices were offered to the monster.

The magnificent ruins of Thebes, the hundred-gated capital, are scattered along the Nile for miles, at and near the modern villages of Luxor and Karnak. The vast palaces and temples, the colossal statues, the avenues of sphinxes, the obelisks, burial-grottoes, and royal sepulchres, seem almost to have been the work of more than ordinary mortals.

ARTS, ETC.—Egypt was pre-eminently an agricultural country. The soil, enriched by the annual inundations of the Nile, yielded abundant harvests with but little labor. Fruit-trees were cultivated, the vine flourished, and wine was manufactured. Sesostris is said to have irrigated the land by means of canals, and throughout antiquity Egypt was the granary of the surrounding states.

The Egyptians excelled in massive architecture, in geometry, astronomy, chemistry, and mechanics, in working the metals, and other branches of manufacture. Their ointments preserved in vases for



EGYPTIAN BOTTLE.

3,000 years still diffuse a fragrance that proves them to have been masters of the perfumer's art. They worked gold and silver mines, and carried on an extensive traffic with Phœnician and Arabian traders. They wore costly ornaments—armlets, necklaces, ear-rings, and amulets; and the children amused themselves with dolls and various toys.

The art of writing was known to the Egyptians at a very early date; and on rolls made out of the paper-plant, *papy'rus*, we have remains of their literature. The historical papyri give exaggerated accounts of the achievements of their kings; the religious manuscripts, constituting the "Books of the Dead," consist chiefly of prayers and instructions as to the life to come.

RELIGION.—The Egyptians worshipped a multitude of gods. Osiris was the personification of all good. His wife Isis had so many titles that she was called "the goddess with ten thousand names." Certain beasts, reptiles, and even vegetables, were regarded as sacred. The bull A'pis, the cat, the crocodile, the ibis, and the beetle, were special objects of worship. When a cat died in a private house, the whole family shaved their eyebrows in token of their affliction. Division into castes was a part of the Egyptian religion.

The Egyptians embalmed their dead, believing that in the course of ages the immortal spirit would re-animate the body; and numerous mummies of men, animals, birds, and serpents, have been preserved to the present day. A debtor could pledge to his creditor the mummies of his ancestors, but was himself deprived of burial if he failed to redeem them.

A peculiar custom was the trial of the dead. Judges were appointed, notice of the ceremony was given, and any who were so disposed could bring charges against the deceased. If it was proved that he had led an evil life, the

body was denied burial. Even kings were subject to this solemn judgment, fear of which exercised a salutary influence over all classes.

Ethiopia, lying south of Egypt, between the Red Sea and the Great Desert, according to fable was peopled by savage tribes,—cave-dwellers, long-lived men, pygmies,—elephant, serpent, and tortoise eaters. But there were also civilized communities, famed for their progress in the arts. Their chief city was Mer'oe (see Map, p. 27), in what is now southern Nubia. It was governed by priest-kings, was distinguished for its commerce and wealth, and was in fact one of the great cities of its day.

After the conquest of Egypt (525 B. C.), Cambyzes set out for the subjugation of Ethiopia; but his troops were reduced to starvation in the desert, and he was forced to abandon his design.

1700 B. C.—Chaldea and Assyria rival monarchies. Phœnicia the chief commercial and colonizing power. Jacob's family in Goshen, Lower Egypt. Silk made in China.

CHAPTER V.

THE HEBREWS AND PHŒNICIANS.

Palestine was occupied soon after the Flood by nations descended from Canaan, son of Ham. It was to this country that God called the patriarch Abraham, to be the founder of his chosen people, the Jews or Hebrews, 1921 B. C. In accordance with the divine command, Abraham, accompanied by his nephew Lot, crossed the Euphrates, and pitched his tents in the land of Canaan, which God promised to his descendants.

Here Abraham and Lot lived as shepherds, until, in consequence of the increase of their flocks, they were obliged to separate in search of pasturage. The former fixed his abode in He'bron; Lot removed to the well-

watered valley of the Jordan (see Map), where were Sod'om, Gomorrah, and the other "cities of the plain." The wickedness of the inhabitants provoked the Lord to rain down upon these cities fire and brimstone; and the once beautiful vale was covered with the waters of the Dead Sea.* Lot was saved, and became the father of the Mo'abites and Am'monites.

Ishmael, the son of Abraham by Ha'gar his handmaid, was the ancestor of the wandering Ar'ab

tribes. Isaac, his son by Sarah his wife, was the heir of the covenant. Isaac married Rebek'ah, a kinswoman,

* The Dead Sea, about forty miles long and nine wide, is overshadowed in parts by lofty cliffs, interspersed with frightful precipices. It receives the Jordan, but has no outlet; and its waters are so salt that fish cannot live in it, nor plants grow on its shores. Sulphur abounds on its borders, and bitumen floats on its surface. The whole surrounding region is one scene of desolation.



who became the mother of two sons, Esau, and Jacob or Israel. From the sons of Jacob sprung the twelve tribes of Israel ; and from Esau, the E'domites, who hewed beautiful tombs in the rocks, still to be seen in the ruins of Pe'tra.

The Jews in Egypt.—Jacob loved Joseph more than his other sons. Moved by envy, they sold their brother to a caravan of Ishmaelites, who carried him into Egypt, where by his abilities and integrity he rose to the position of chief minister.

Joseph saved Egypt from a disastrous famine. When his brethren, suffering at home in the land of Canaan, came down thither to purchase food, little thinking that in the ruler who received them they beheld the brother they had wronged, he made himself known to them, supplied their wants, and granted them the fertile district of Go'shen for their residence (1706 B. C.).

There the Israelites multiplied and prospered; but in the course of time they were cruelly oppressed by the Egyptians. At last Pharaoh, to prevent their further increase, ordered every male infant to be drowned in the Nile. One of these Hebrew children was rescued by the king's daughter, who named him Moses (*from the water*), and instructed him in all the learning of the land. Having slain an Egyptian for beating a Hebrew, Moses was compelled to fly into the deserts of Arabia, and for forty years he fed the flocks of Je'thro, priest of Midian.

The Exodus.—At the end of this time, God directed him to deliver the Hebrew people from Pharaoh and lead them to the promised land of Canaan. Joined by Aaron his brother, Moses demanded the release of the Israelites, and on the refusal of the Egyptian king afflicted the country, by the divine command, with successive plagues. After the first-born of the nation were smitten with death, Pharaoh allowed the children of Israel to depart ; but

afterward repenting, he pursued them, and was overwhelmed with his host in the Red Sea (1491 B. C.).

Forty years the ungrateful Jews, murmuring at the hardships they were called on to endure, were compelled to wander in the wilderness under the leadership of Moses. During this period the Ten Commandments were delivered on Mt. Sinai, and the Tabernacle was erected.

Moses, for rebellion against the Lord, was not permitted to enter "the promised land." After viewing it from the top of Mt. Nebo, he died at the age of 120 years, and "no man knoweth of his sepulchre to this day." Moses was the great law-giver of Israel, and the author of the first five books of the Bible.

Conquest of Canaan.—Moses was succeeded by Joshua, a man "full of the spirit of wisdom." Under his direction, the children of Abraham passed over the Jordan into the land of Canaan, their inheritance. The walls of Jer'icho fell down before them; A'i was taken by stratagem; and the inhabitants of both towns were put to the sword. Within five years Joshua had reduced an extensive territory, which was divided among the Israelites.

After the death of Joshua (1426 B. C.), the children of Israel often forgot the Lord and worshipped idols. To punish their sin, God allowed their enemies to reduce them to servitude; and, when they repented, he raised them up deliverers called Judges.

The Judges.—Among the most celebrated of these was the prophetess Deb'orah, who rescued the afflicted tribes from Ja'bin, king of Canaan. Gid'eon delivered his people from bondage to the Midianites, and Jeph'thah overthrew the Ammonites. Samson, the most remarkable avenger of his countrymen, slaughtered the Philistines (*filistines*) with wonderful feats of strength, and at last killed himself and several thousand of their lords and

people by pulling down the pillars of the house in which they were assembled.

Samuel, the last of the Judges, released the Israelites from subjection to the Philistines. When they desired an earthly sovereign, after vainly warning them of the tyranny of kings, he by God's command anointed Saul, of the tribe of Benjamin, the first monarch of Israel.

Kingdom of Israel (1095-975 B. C.).—When Saul ascended the throne, the Israelites were mostly engaged in pastoral and agricultural pursuits, and their territory was exposed to the ravages of the surrounding nations. The new king defeated the Ammonites, and routed the Philistines. In a subsequent war, with the Am'alekites, he disobeyed God, on which account his family was excluded from the throne; and David, the youthful son of Jesse, of the tribe of Judah, was secretly anointed by Samuel as the successor to the crown.

David was comely, valorous, and skilled in the use of the harp. On the renewal of hostilities by the Philistines, he slew their great champion, the giant Goliath of Gath, with a stone from his shepherd's sling. For this feat David was honored as the hero of the day, and he thus incurred the envy of Saul. But Saul's son, Jonathan, between whom and David a strong friendship had grown up, interposed in his behalf; and, after many narrow escapes from the resentment of the king, David withdrew to a foreign land.

Saul and three of his sons fell in battle with the Philistines, 1055 B. C. His only surviving son was acknowledged king by all the tribes but Judah. Civil war followed, and it was seven years before the authority of David was established over all Israel.

DAVID at once began to enlarge the boundaries of his kingdom. He took Jerusalem from the Jeb'usites, made it his capital, and removed thither the ark of the covenant.

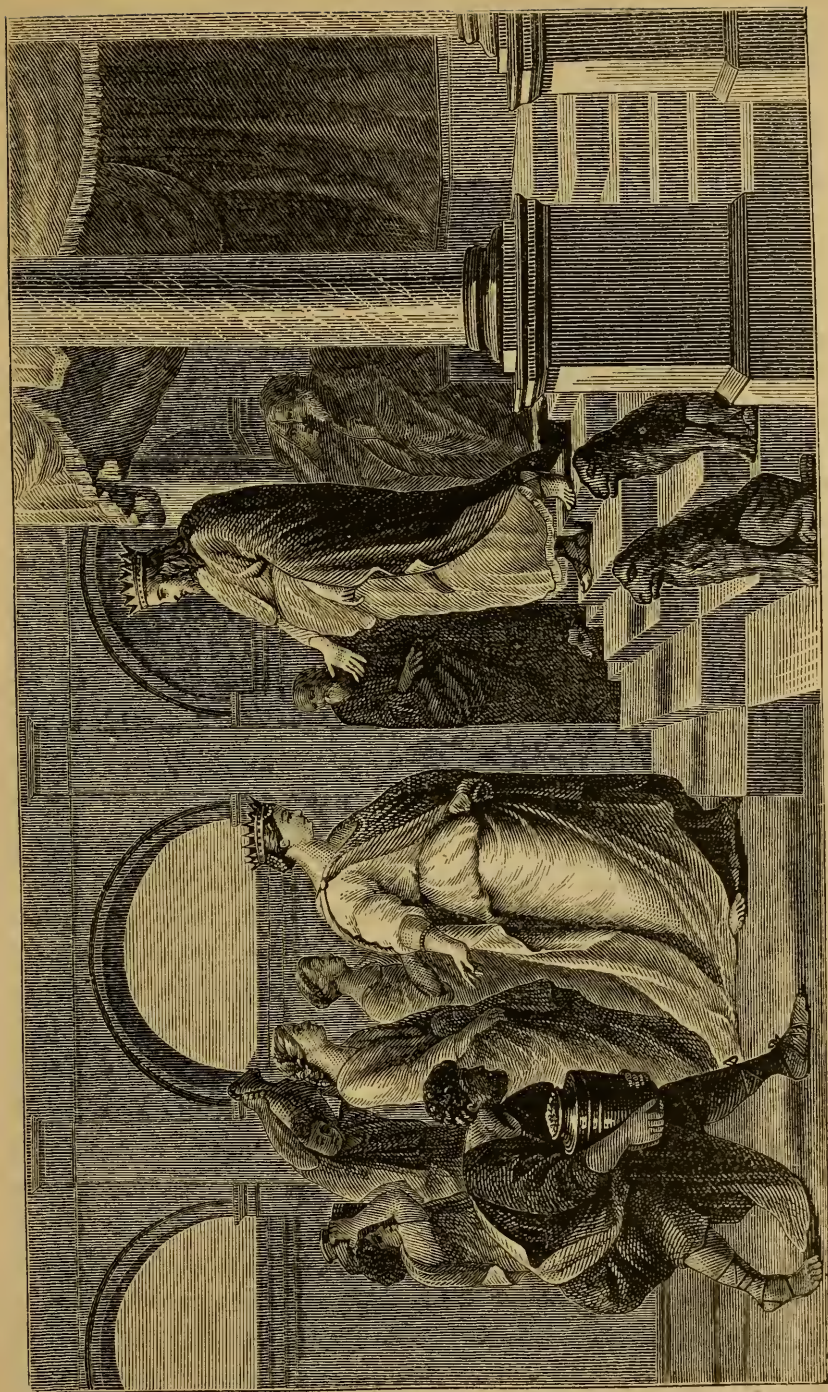
The Philistines and Moabites were overthrown, Syria was conquered, and an empire founded which stretched along the Mediterranean from Phœnicia to Arabia, and was bounded on the east by the Euphrates.

David's reign was disturbed by the rebellion of his two sons, Absalom and Adoni'jah. The former, caught by his head in the branches of an oak, was slain by Jo'ab, captain-general of the army. The latter was excluded from the succession, which was secured to his younger brother, Solomon.

Though David was not superior to human frailties, he is distinguished as "the man after God's own heart." His Psalms, written by the inspiration of the Most High, are full of sublime conceptions, and are recognized as masterpieces of lyric poetry.

SOLOMON (1015-975 B. C.) raised the Jewish kingdom to the pinnacle of its glory. In his youth God appeared to him in a dream, and promised to give him whatever he desired. He asked for wisdom ; but God also conferred on him riches and honor, and he became celebrated throughout the East. Foreign princes, attracted by the brilliancy of his court, visited Jerusalem. The Queen of Sheba came with a train of camels, bearing as gifts, spices, gold, and costly jewels. So far did the riches and wisdom of Solomon exceed her expectations that she exclaimed, "Behold, the half was not told me !"

Solomon's name is connected with the magnificent Temple which he built at Jerusalem, with the aid of Phœnician workmen furnished by his friend Hiram, king of Tyre. In this splendid structure, which was solemnly dedicated to Jehovah, rested the ark, surmounted by two golden cherubim. Solomon also built many cities, of which Tadmor in the wilderness (afterward Palmy'ra) was the most celebrated. He founded a navy, and carried on an extensive commerce in company with King Hiram.



QUEEN OF SHEBA VISITING SOLOMON.

His ships returned from distant seas, laden with gems, precious metals, and curious plants and animals. Horses and chariots were bought of the Egyptians, and used for the first time in the armies of Israel.

Solomon maintained seven hundred wives, many of whom were the princesses of neighboring idolatrous nations. In his old age they prevailed on him to worship their gods, and for this great sin the Lord decreed that after his death the kingdom should be given to his servant.

King Solomon died 975 B. C. He was among the greatest of the Hebrew writers. From his inspired pen came the Proverbs of the Bible, with all their wealth of wisdom, the Song of Songs, and in all probability the Book of Ecclesiastes. He is reputed, besides, to have written a thousand canticles, and dissertations on various subjects.

Arts, Customs, etc.—The early Hebrews cultivated music and poetry, but in general paid little attention to the arts and sciences. Agriculture was their leading pursuit, the vine and olive receiving special care. Every seventh year God ordered the land to be left untilled, and whatever grew of itself to be given to the destitute.

The houses were, for the most part, poor and low, built of sun-dried mud or unhewn stones, till the time of the kings, when more attention was paid to architecture. The street-doors were adorned with inscriptions from the Law of Moses. The windows had no glass, but were latticed. The roofs were flat, and the people often resorted to them for cool air, and even slept there in summer. Domestic utensils were few and simple. Grain was ground by the women in hand-mills. Olive-oil was used in lamps for giving light. The towns, from the want of temples and public buildings, must have presented a mean appearance. The ancient books were in the form of rolls.

By the original Hebrew constitution, God himself was

king of the nation; human governors merely ruled in his name. The tribe of Levi was set apart for the services of religion.

Phœnicia, a strip of land north of Palestine, between the Libanus Mountains and the Mediterranean, was the great commercial country of antiquity. The Phœnicians colonized the coasts and islands of the Mediterranean, passed the Pillars of Hercules, founded Ga'des (Cadiz) on the Atlantic shore, and extended their voyages to the British Isles. From Spain they obtained silver and lead; from Britain, tin; and they are even supposed to have entered the Baltic in search of amber, which was more highly valued than gold.

The Phœnicians excelled in ingenious arts. They claimed to have been the first to manufacture glass, and to have invented letters, which they introduced into Europe. The cloths of Sidon and Tyre were greatly esteemed; and Tyrian purple, a dye obtained from shell-fish, was renowned from the earliest periods.

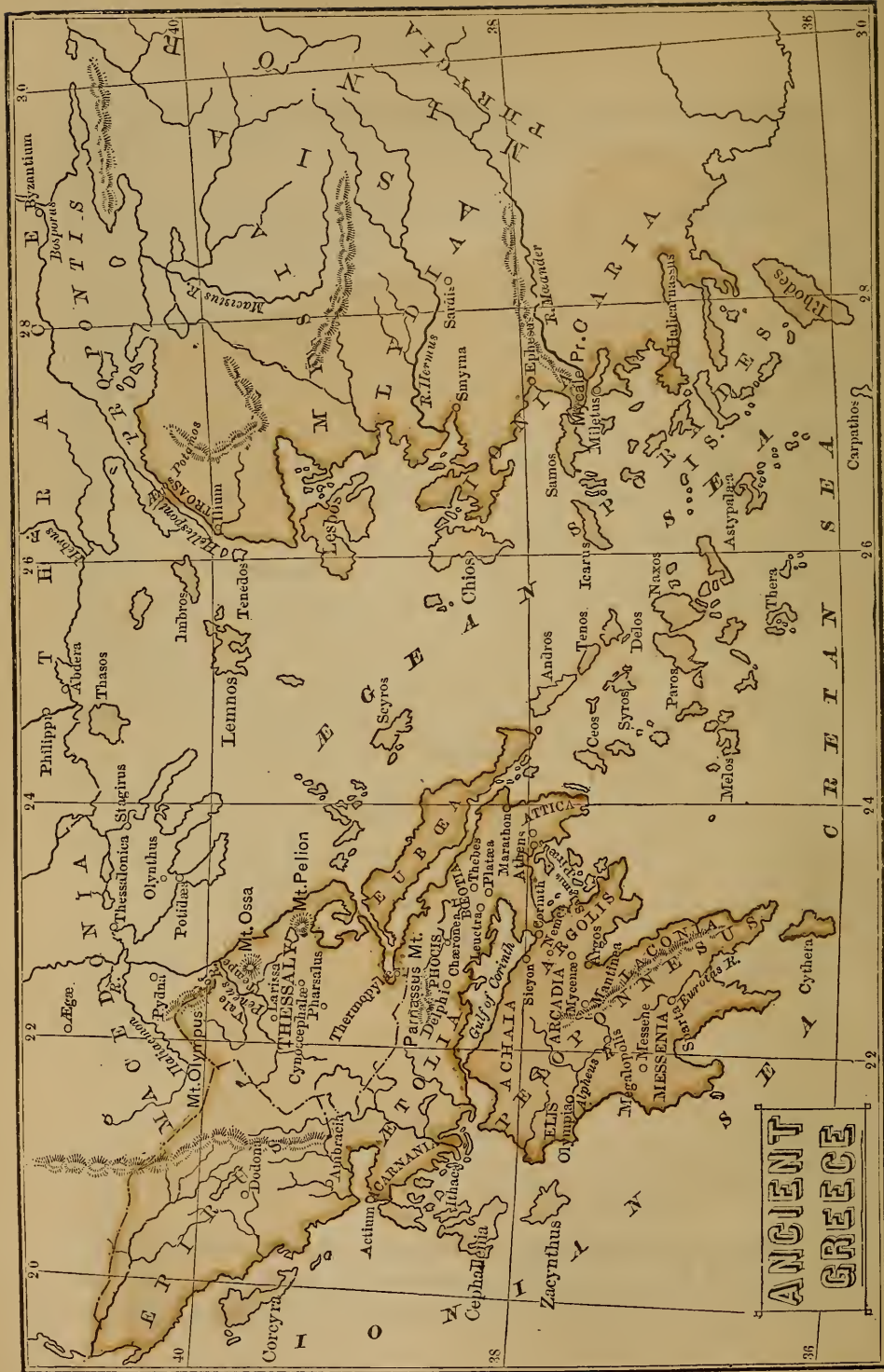
Judges of Israel.

Oth'niel,	40 years.	Abim'elech,	3 years.	E'lon,	10 years.
E'hud.		To'la,	23 "	Abdon,	8 "
Sham'gar.		Ja'ir,	22 "	E'li,	40 "
Deb'orah.		Jephthah,	6 "	Samson,	1137-1117.
Gid'eon,	40 years.	Ibzan,	7 "	Samuel,	1107-1095.

CHAPTER VI.

FOUNDING OF THE GRECIAN STATES.

Ancient Greece was a peninsula in the south-eastern corner of Europe, corresponding with modern Greece and the adjacent parts of southern Turkey. In the north lay



Epi'rus, and Thes'saly celebrated for the beautiful vale of Tem'pe. (Find on the Map the various places mentioned.) The principal states of central Greece were Acarna'nia, Æto'lia, Pho'cis, Bœo'tia, and Attica. The southern part was the Peloponne'sus (now the More'a), connected with the main-land by the Isthmus of Corinth, and containing, besides minor states, Arca'dia, Messe'nia, Ar'golis, and the rugged Laco'nia.

Greece was intersected by mountain-chains and traversed by numerous rivers. Its coasts were indented by bays, affording excellent harbors. The adjacent waters were dotted with fruitful islands, the largest being Eubœ'a, the modern Negropont (*neg-ro-pont'*), opposite Attica and Bœotia.

Primitive Inhabitants.—In very early times Greece was occupied by kindred tribes, bearing the general name of *Pelas'gi*. From the affinities of their language to Sanscrit, Celtic, and the Slav'ic and Teutonic dialects, they are supposed originally to have emigrated from the table-land of Iran, already mentioned as the home of the Aryans. Large bodies of them settled in Thessaly and Epirus; others kept on to the south and peopled the Peloponnesus, where as early as 1856 B. C. In'achus founded Argos and Sicyon (*sis'h'e-on*). Others again made their way to the islands of the Ægean and the opposite coast of Asia Minor.

The Pelasgi seem to have been a rude but peaceable people, engaged for the most part in agricultural pursuits. To them are generally ascribed the massive architectural ruins called Cyclope'an,* still visible in Greece.

Immigrations.—Grecian legends tell us that from the

* So called from the Cyclo'pes, a fabulous race of giants having a single eye in the centre of their foreheads. The ancients regarded them as the builders of structures that seemed too vast to have been reared by men.

sixteenth to the fourteenth century B. C. colonies arrived from Egypt, Phœnicia, and Phrygia (*frîj'e-ă*), bringing with them the civilization of those countries. Thus about 1550 B. C., Ce'crops came to Attica from Egypt, and founded Cecro'pia, afterward called Athens in honor of Athe'ne, or Minerva, its patron goddess. Cecrops is said to have introduced marriage and to have partially civilized the aborigines.

About the same time, Cadmus, a Phœnician, colonized Bœotia, and laid the foundations of its capital Thebes. The fable runs that Cadmus sowed dragon's teeth, from which armed men sprung up and battled with each other till all but five fell. These were the ancestors of the Thebans. Cadmus is reported to have introduced weights and measures, and to have brought sixteen letters of the alphabet from Phœnicia into Greece.

Pe'lops, a Phrygian adventurer, subsequently settled in southern Greece. His descendants became very powerful, and from him the peninsula derived its name of Peloponnesus, *the island of Pelops*.

The Hellenes.—About the beginning of the fourteenth century B. C. (1384), a new race, the Helle'nes, appeared in Thessaly. They soon subjugated the Pelasgi, and extended their power over the whole country, which was from them called *Hellas*. The name *Greece* originated with the Romans at a much later date.

The Pelasgians and Hellenes probably had a common origin. They eventually blended together, and the union of their kindred dialects gave rise to the Greek language. Where the Pelasgian element predominated, civilization and literature flourished most; the Hellenic element seems rather to have been identified with warlike tastes.

The Hellenes traced their origin to Hellen, son of Deuca'lion and Pyr'ra, the survivors of their traditional Deluge. From the sons of Hellen sprung the four lead-

ing branches of the Hellenic nation ; viz., the Do'rians, Æo'lians, Achæans, and Io'nians.

The Heroic Age of Grecian history was a legendary period of about two centuries, immediately following the appearance of the Hellenes in Thessaly. Greece was then divided into numerous petty states; and many heroes flourished, whose feats of prowess, whether facts of history or fictions of the imagination, caused them to be regarded as offspring of the gods.

Her'cules, the impersonation of physical strength, was famous for his "twelve labors." The'seus, the great Athenian law-giver, conquered the Am'azons, a mythical race of women-warriors, and vanquished the Min'otaur of Crete, a monster half man half bull, that dwelt in the Labyrinth and feasted on youths and maidens sent from Athens. Per'seus slew the Gorgon Medu'sa, whose frightful head turned all that looked at it into stone. Mi'nos was the Cretan legislator, and one of the judges in the lower world. Or'pheus, the Thracian musician, tamed wild beasts and moved rocks by his sweet strains.

The Heroic Age is made memorable by the poets for a series of wars and expeditions. The greatest of these were the Trojan War (treated of in the following chapter) and the Argonautic Expedition. The latter was undertaken by Ja'son, a Thessalian prince, accompanied by many Grecian heroes, in quest of "the golden fleece." Most of these old stories are said to have a hidden meaning; and this legend seems to symbolize the endeavors of the early princes to secure the advantages of commercial intercourse with foreign countries.

Mythology, Arts, and Manners.—The Greeks were a highly imaginative people, and their mythology was less forbidding than the religious systems that had preceded it. They worshipped many gods, by which the elements, passions, virtues, mental attributes, etc., were typified—

gods, according to their belief, endowed with human feelings, frail, erring, and some of them even criminal, like ordinary mortals. In honor of these deities statues were set up, and gorgeous temples reared in styles of architecture that are yet followed. Pompous processions moved around their shrines, on which the fairest products of the earth were laid, and animals without blemish and adorned with garlands were sacrificed.

The Romans in later days recognized the same great divinities as the Greeks, and it is by their Roman names that the Greek gods are generally spoken of. Jupiter, son of Saturn, was the "father of gods and men," and with his haughty queen Juno reigned over heaven and earth from the lofty summit of Mt. Olympus in Thessaly. Mars was the god of war; Apollo, of music and prophecy; Mercury, the god of eloquence, was the messenger of the celestials; Vulcan presided over fire and the useful arts. Ve'nus was the goddess of beauty, Diana of hunting, Ce'res of agriculture, Vesta of the fireside, and Minerva of the sciences and liberal arts. Neptune, with his trident, ruled the sea; and Pluto had dominion over the lower world.

Bacchus was recognized as the god of wine, Cupid of love; Hebe was the goddess of youth and cup-bearer at the celestial banquets. Besides these, there were a multitude of inferior deities; as, the nine Muses, the Graces, Fates, Nymphs, Si'rens, etc.

To obtain advice and information about future events, the Greeks consulted *oracles*. The most famous were the oracle of Jupiter, at Dodo'na, in Epirus,—and that of Apollo, at Delphi, in Pho'cis. (See Map, p. 40.) The responses were given by mysterious voices, or by attendants in a state of frenzy, real or assumed; they were expressed in obscure or ambiguous language, so as to admit of different interpretations.

The Greeks had an interesting tradition of the Deluge. Deuca'lion and Pyrrha were saved in a chest, and on landing picked up stones and threw them over their heads. The stones thrown by Deucalion were turned into men, those thrown by Pyrrha into women; and thus the earth was repopled.

We are indebted to Ho'mer, the oldest and greatest of Grecian poets, for what we know of the domestic life of the early Greeks. The main pursuits of the people were agriculture and the raising of flocks. Cattle not only formed the chief source of wealth, but even served as a medium of exchange; a female slave, for instance, was valued at so many oxen.

Considerable progress seems to have been early made in the useful arts, such as carpentry, building, and the manufacture of cloth. Woman was treated with respect; ladies of the highest rank spun, wove, and engaged in other domestic employments. The power was in the hands of kings and nobles. Captives taken in war were enslaved. Priests and temples were held in reverence. One of the leading virtues was hospitality; the palace of the noble was always open to the stranger.

Greece was favorably situated for navigation, and constant intercourse was maintained with the adjacent coasts of the Mediterranean, islands being so thickly interspersed that voyages of some length could be made without losing sight of land. At this early period light galleys propelled chiefly by oarsmen were used. A mast was raised, and sails were brought into play, only when the wind was favorable.

1500 B. C.—Egyptian colony of Cecrops in Attica. Phœnician colony of Cadmus in Bœotia. Dan'aus settles with a colony in Argos. Alphabetic writing used in Greece. Egypt flourishing after the expulsion of the Shepherd Kings. Israelites still in Egypt. Moses feeding the flocks of Jethro, in Midian.

CHAPTER VII.

TROIJAN WAR, AND SUCCEEDING PERIOD IN GREECE.

Troy (Il'ium), a powerful capital in the north-western part of Asia Minor (see Map, p. 40), was in the twelfth century B. C. the scene of important events, growing out of a wrong committed by Par'is, son of Pri'am, a Trojan monarch. This prince (so the legend goes) visited the court of Menela'us, king of Sparta, or Lacedæmon (*las-e-de'mon*), and in his absence carried off his fair wife Helen to Troy. The outraged Menelaus summoned the Grecian chiefs to avenge the injury, and a large force assembled under his brother Agamemnon, king of Mycenæ (*mi-se'ne*). Led by such heroes as Di'omede, A'jax, the crafty Ulysses, king of Ith'aca, and the brave Achilles (*a-kil'leez*) of Thessaly, the Grecian warriors embarked in nearly 1,200 vessels for Troy.

After a gallant resistance of ten years, during which the Trojan Hector "of the glancing helm" and "the lion-hearted Achilles" fell, the city was taken by a stratagem of Ulysses. A huge wooden horse filled with armed Greeks, represented as an offering to the goddess Minerva, was received by the besieged within the walls. In the dead of night the hostile band came forth from their hiding-place, admitted their comrades, surprised the Trojans who had been engaged in festivities, and fired the city (1183 B. C.). Priam, with most of his warriors, was killed, and the survivors became the slaves of the conquerors, or sought safety in flight.

The Trojan War forms the subject of the Iliad, the immortal epic of the blind poet Homer, supposed to have flourished about 950 B. C. The adventures of Ulysses while returning to Ithaca, and the trials of his faithful

wife Pe-nel'o-pe during his absence, are described in the *Od'yssey* of the same poet. The *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are thought to have been recited for generations before they were committed to writing. Such was their popularity that seven cities contended for the honor of having given birth to their author; yet some have maintained that they were the work of different hands, and that no such person as Homer ever lived.

Nearly contemporaneous with Homer, and often mentioned in connection with him as one of the old bards of Greece, was the Bœotian poet Hesiod (*he'she-od*). To him are ascribed the didactic poem "Works and Days," containing precepts on farming interspersed with fables and moral maxims, and the "Theog'ony," which gives an account of the origin of the world, and the birth of gods and heroes.

Greece after the Trojan War.—Various commotions followed the return of the Greek chieftains from Troy. Some were obliged to have recourse to arms, to drive out enemies who had taken possession of their thrones. These disturbances were succeeded by important migratory movements. New races expelled the previous settlers, many of whom, leaving their country, founded colonies on the islands and eastern shores of the *Ægean*.

A great part of the Peloponnesus was conquered by the Dorians, led by the Heracli'dæ (descendants of Hercules), who had been driven out by the family of Pelops. A body of Ionians, dislodged from their seats in the Peloponnesus by the return of the Heraclidæ, crossed to Asia Minor. Here and on the adjacent islands they founded settlements, which grew into cities, and ultimately joined in an Ionian confederacy. Among these cities was Eph'esus, renowned for its temple of Diana, one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world.

North of the Ionians, *Æolian* emigrants established

twelve towns ; while the Dorians themselves settled the southern coast and the adjacent island of Rhodes. Rhodes was celebrated for its Colos'sus, an immense image of Apollo, so placed as to bestride the entrance to the har-



THE COLOSSUS OF RHODES.

bor. The Colossus was over 100 feet high, and its thumb was so large that a man could not clasp it with his arms. When, after lying on the ground for centuries, it was removed, the metal that composed it loaded 900 camels.

The Greeks also peopled the shores of the Euxine (Black Sea). They founded Byzantium (the modern Constantinople) in the east, Massilia (Marseilles) in the far west, and the rich Cy-re'ne on the coast of Africa. Many Greek colonies were planted in Lower Italy and Sicily, which received the name of Magna Græcia (*mag'nă gre'she-ă, Great Greece*). The most important of these were the luxurious Taren'tum,—Cu'mæ, celebrated for its oracle and Sib'yl,—and Syr'acuse, on the island of Sicily.

Dorian Invasion of Attica.—The Dorians gradually extended their conquests beyond the Isthmus of Corinth, and in the reign of Co'drus invaded Attica. Having learned from a friendly Delphian that the oracle had assured the invaders of success if they spared the life of the Athenian king, Codrus determined to die in behalf of his people. Leaving the city in the disguise of a woodman, he fell in with two soldiers of the enemy, and offering them gratuitous affronts was set upon and slain. When the Dorians found that the Attic chief had thus fallen, despairing of success they withdrew their forces. Thereupon the Athenian nobles did away with the office of *king*, and substituted for it that of *archon* (*ar'kon*). From this time the government was republican.

Sparta.—After the subjugation of Laconia, the people were divided into three classes: the Dorian conquerors, who became known as *Spartans*, and alone enjoyed political privileges; the Periœci (*per-e-e'si*), free inhabitants of the rural districts, engaged in commerce and the trades, mostly of Achæan descent; and the He'lots, consisting of captives and rebels reduced to slavery. The Helots were employed in agricultural pursuits, and treated with great brutality. They could even be put to death when they became so numerous as to appear dangerous to the state.

Internal dissensions arising, the Spartans gradually degenerated. At length, in the ninth century B. C., Ly-

curgus, one of their princes, after carefully studying the laws of foreign countries, framed for his own the constitution that bears his name.

CONSTITUTION OF LYCURGUS.—Lycurgus cared nothing for intellectual education or the humanizing arts ; he aimed at making his nation invincible in war and filling them with love of country. The young of both sexes were required to undergo the severest physical training, that self-reliance, agility, and strength, might be thus insured. To accustom them to pain, boys were publicly whipped, sometimes so cruelly that death resulted. Rich and poor dined together on coarse repulsive food. An iron coinage was adopted, to the exclusion of the precious metals ; such money being valueless abroad, foreign luxuries were unknown. The hardy Spartan thus learned to despise effeminacy. His field of labor was the camp ; he was allowed no time for commerce, agriculture, or any other peaceful pursuit.

Stealing was considered a disgrace and crime, only if detected. A story is told of a Spartan boy who, to avoid discovery, suffered his body to be torn open by a fox which he had stolen and concealed in his garments.

Lycurgus retained the double monarchy which was peculiar to the Lacedæmonian state, but limited its power. To him is ascribed the institution of the Senate, and the officers called Eph'ori, elected annually by the people to watch over the constitution and punish those who violated it.

Having persuaded the Spartans to swear that they would keep his laws while he was away, Lycurgus left his country with the intention of never returning. Nor did he do so. His constitution remained in force five centuries, and made Sparta the most powerful state in Greece.

CONQUEST OF MESSE니아.—Under the workings of the laws of Lycurgus, Spartan territory was gradually en-

larged. The conquest of the neighboring state of Messe'nia was the result of two long and obstinate contests (743-668 B. C.). After bearing the yoke for forty years, the Messenians revolted, and were at first successful. But the Spartans, roused by the odes of the Athenian poet Tyrtaeus, finally prevailed, and reduced their vanquished foes to the condition of Helots. Some of the Messenians, however, fled to Sicily, and gave their name to the city of Messa'na (now Messina). This success secured to Sparta the supremacy of the Peloponnesus, and she soon began to interfere in the general affairs of Greece.

Grecian Institutions.—Among the early institutions of Greece were the amphi'tyonies, or associations of tribes for the purpose of protecting the temples of the gods. The most important of these was the Amphictyonic Council. Its members were bound to refrain from destroying any city of the alliance in time of war, and to use all their powers in defence of the Delphic temple of Apollo.

The Greeks were also bound together by the Great Games (Olympic, Pyth'ian, Neme'an, and Isthmian), celebrated at Olympia, Delphi, Nemea, and on the Corinthian Isthmus. They consisted of gymnastic sports, and horse and chariot races, as well as contests in poetry and music, and attracted competitors and spectators from far and wide. Their influence was doubtless beneficial, promoting intercourse among the states, strengthening in them a feeling of common nationality, and exciting in individuals a healthy spirit of emulation.

The Olympic Games, in honor of Jupiter, were the most famous. Originally instituted by Hercules, as the ancients believed, they were revived, after having been discontinued for years, in the time of Lycurgus. A victory at these games, though rewarded only with a crown of wild-olive, was regarded as the highest honor that a

Greek could obtain, and brought glory not only to himself but also to his family and state. Statues were erected, and odes written, to preserve the memory of the victors.

1000 B. C.—Solomon at the height of his glory. The Temple just completed. Hiram king of Tyre. Babylonia under the Assyrians. Egypt fallen from its greatness. Ethiopia growing in power. Dorians in the Peloponnesus. Trojan colonists in Italy.

CHAPTER VIII.

KINGDOMS OF ISRAEL AND JUDAH.

(975–588 B. C.)

Division of the Jewish Monarchy.—On the death of Solomon (975 B. C.), the Jewish people entreated his son Rehobo'am to remove the oppressive taxes imposed on them by the late king. But he only threatened to add to their burden. "My father," said he, "chastised you with whips, but I will chastise you with scorpions." Ten of the tribes in consequence revolted, and chose for their king Jerobo'am, a former servant of Solomon. Thus was Solomon's idolatry punished, and the Kingdom of Israel rent from the house of David. Judah and Benjamin alone adhered to Rehoboam, who thus became the first monarch of "the kingdom of Judah."

Israel.—To wean the people from their religion, which required them to go up to the Temple at Jerusalem, Jeroboam made two calves of gold as objects of worship. Though warned by a prophet of God, he persisted in his guilty course; and finally his family was exterminated, and a usurper obtained the crown. Omri, one of the successors of Jeroboam, built the city of Sama'ria, and made it his seat of government.

Under A'hab, son of Omri, through the influence of his wicked wife Jez'ebel, a Phœnician princess, the worship of Ba'al, the great sun-god of her nation, was introduced into Israel. Eli'jah, the greatest prophet that had appeared since Moses, boldly rebuked the abominations of the king, announced the punishment of the nation by drought and famine, and afterward miraculously triumphed over the priests of Baal in the presence of the assembled people; yet Ahab and Jezebel continued in their iniquity. A few years later, in accordance with the doom pronounced by the prophet, the king fell in battle with the Syrians; his posterity was utterly destroyed by Jehu, one of his generals who had been appointed the



JEWISH HIGH-PRIEST.

Lord's avenger; the infamous Jezebel was hurled from the palace-window, and her body was devoured by dogs.

CAPTIVITY OF THE TEN TRIBES.—Jehu destroyed the idol and temple of Baal, but allowed the worship of the golden calves. His family continued to reign until 772 B. c., contemporaneously with the prophets Eli'sha, Jo'nah, A'mos, and Hosea (*ho-ze'a*). These holy men vainly strove to check the growing corruption. Immorality and idolatry prevailed, the country became impoverished, and the Assyrians invaded Palestine.

Hoshe'a, the last king of Israel, was besieged in Sama-

ria by Shalmane'ser. The capital fell, and Hoshea was sent in chains to Nineveh (721 B. C.). The ten tribes were carried away into captivity beyond the Euphrates, and their land was occupied by foreign settlers. These united with the few Hebrews who remained, and formed the Samaritan nation. But the flower of the Israelites either became incorporated with the conquerors, or migrated farther east, leaving no traces behind. To this day they are spoken of as "the lost tribes."

Judah.—The rival kingdom of Judah maintained its existence for nearly four centuries, surviving Israel more than 130 years. Idolatry was the stumbling-block of several of its kings. Even Rehoboam fell into this sin shortly after his accession; God punished him by allowing the king of Egypt to pillage Jerusalem.

The pious A'sa "took away the altars of the strange gods," and trusting in the Lord put to flight an invading horde of Ethiopians. Jehosh'aphat, his son, continued the work of reform. With the exception of connections which he formed with the idolatrous Ahab and two succeeding kings of Israel, his administration was wise, and under it Judah enjoyed a prosperity unknown since the time of Solomon.

It was not long, however, before the true God was again forsaken, and disasters in consequence overtook the nation. The wicked A'haz (742–726 B. C.) encouraged the grossest idolatry; and Judah, weakened by the incursions of her hostile neighbors, became tributary to the Assyrian king. But Hezeki'ah, the son of Ahaz, once more restored the true worship. He was enabled to throw off the Assyrian yoke; and the host of Sennach'erib, his boastful foe, was destroyed by the angel of the Lord.

The people, however, relapsed into idolatry under Manas'sah, the tyrannical son of Hezekiah; and the most abominable rites were practised. The few who remained

true to their faith were subjected to cruel persecution, and the Jews have a tradition that the great prophet Isaiah was sawn asunder by order of the king. Manasseh was carried off in chains by the Assyrians; but he repented in his dungeon, and God restored him to his throne.

Josiah, who became king 641 B. C., put down idolatry with a strong hand. During his reign, the original prophecies, written by the hand of Moses, were brought to light, foretelling to the faithless Jews the destruction of their Temple and the desolation of their land.

THE CAPTIVITY.—These predictions were fulfilled in the reign of Josiah's son, Zedeki'ah. The Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar invaded Jude'a, stormed Jerusalem, burned the Temple, and removed the surviving Jews to Babylon (588 B. C.), thus putting an end to their monarchy.

The captivity lasted till 536 B. C. After Babylon was taken by the Persians (p. 22), permission was given to the exiled people to return to their native land. Many availed themselves of the opportunity, and finally the capital was rebuilt and the Temple restored. Moreover, the Jews remembered the lesson taught them by their calamities, and thenceforth adhered to the religion of their fathers.

Hebrew Literature.—During the period treated of above, various prophets wrote under the inspiration of the Spirit of God; their works appear in the Old Testament. The four greater prophets are Isaiah, who foretold the fate of the Jews and the birth of the Messiah in the sublimest of lyric poetry; Jeremiah, who denounced divine judgments on his people for their disobedience, and in his "Lamentations" poured forth his sorrow for their downfall; Daniel and Ezekiel, who, carried captives to Babylon, there delivered their prophetic visions. Almost all of Daniel's long life was passed at Babylon, where he was promoted to office and honor. He predicted the time of

the Messiah's advent with such precision that a general expectation of his coming prevailed among the Jews at the time of our Saviour's appearance.

Kings of Israel and Judah.

KINGS OF ISRAEL.		KINGS OF JUDAH.		CONTEMPORARIES.
Jerobo'am,	975.	Rehobo'am,	975 :	Shi'shak, king of Egypt.
Na'dab,	954.	Abi'jah,	958 :	Astartus, king of Tyre.
Ba'asha,	953.	A'sa,	955 :	Ben-ha'dad I., king of Syria; Homer.
E'lah,	930.	Jehosh'aphat,	914 :	Elijah; Ben-ha'dad II., king of Syria.
Zim'ri,	929.	Jeho'ram,	892 :	The prophet Elisha.
Om'ri,	929.	Ahazi'ah,	885 :	Haz'ael, king of Syria.
A'hab,	918.	Ath-a-li'ah,	884 :	Jehoi'ada, high-priest.
Ahazi'ah,	898.	Jeho'ash,	878 :	Dido, founder of Carthage; Lycurgus.
Jeho'ram,	896.	Am-a-zi'ah,	839 :	Boc'choris, king of Egypt.
Je'hu,	884.	Uzzi'ah,	810 :	The prophets Jonah and Amos.
Jeho'ahaz,	856.	Jo'tham,	753 :	Romulus, founder of Rome.
Jeho'ash,	841.	A'haz,	742 :	Re'zin, king of Syria.
Jerobo'am II.,	825.	Hezeki'ah,	726 :	Sargon; Sennacherib; Isaiah.
Zachari'ah,	773.	Manasseh,	698 :	E'sar-had'don, king of Assyria.
Shal'lum,	772.	A'mon,	643 :	Tullus Hostil'ius, king of Rome.
Men'ahem,	772.	Josi'ah,	641 :	The prophet Jeremiah.
Pek-a-hi'ah,	761.	Jeho'ahaz,	610 :	
Pe'kah,	759.	Jehoi'akim,	610 :	
Hoshe'a,	730.	Jehoi'achin,	599 :	
Samaria taken,	721.	Zedeki'ah,	599 :	Jerusalem taken, 588 B. C.

CHAPTER IX.

FOUNDING OF ROME.—THE ROMAN KINGS.

(753-509 B. C.)

Early Settlement of Italy.—The peninsula we now know as Italy was inhabited in remote ages by several races, among which were the Etruscans, Oscans, Sa'bines, and Lat'ins. The Etruscans, or Tuscans, who appear to have been an entirely different race from the others, were the most polished. At first they constituted a powerful state in the north, but afterward occupied the region west

of the Tiber, where they formed a confederacy of twelve cities. That they excelled in architecture is shown by the remains of massive ruins, dikes, and tunnels. They also carried on a large commerce, and their pirate-vessels were long the terror of the western Mediterranean.

The Sabines were a moral, agricultural people, distinguished for their love of freedom. The powerful and prosperous Latins dwelt in Latium (*la'she-um*), south of the Tiber.

Founding of Rome.—

Tradition tells us that, on the destruction of Troy (p. 46), Æne'as, a Trojan warrior, gathering together a few survivors of the unfortunate city, sailed westward, succeeded in reaching Italy, built there a city, and married the daughter



ter of the Latin king. The son of Æneas founded Alba Longa, which became in time an opulent city.

Another legend relates that Rom'ulus and Re'mus, twins of the regal line of Alba Longa, having been exposed at their birth, were carried off and nourished by a she-wolf, till they were discovered by a herdsman, who brought them up with his own sons. In course of time, learning their royal origin, these princes restored to the

throne their grandfather, who had been driven out by a usurper. Shortly after, they began to build a city on the Ti'ber (753 B. C.); but in a quarrel which ensued Remus was killed, and the city was called from his brother ROME.

To attract inhabitants to his city, Romulus proclaimed it an asylum for fugitives; and numbers of outlaws from the surrounding country fled there for protection. From the miserable huts of this robber band on Mt. Pal'atine, Rome arose to be the mistress of the world.—In these and other stories connected with the early history of Rome, it is hard to tell what is truth and what mere fable.

The Kings.—ROMULUS.—In order to procure wives for the outcasts who filled his city, Romulus announced a great festival; and the neighboring people thronged to it with their families. In the midst of the games, the armed Romans each carried off a woman as his wife. War was the consequence; and Ti'tus Tatius (*ta'she-us*), king of the Sabines, soon appeared before the infant city with an army. At this juncture, Tarpeia (*tar-pe'ya*), whose father commanded a citadel on the Cap'itoline Hill, coveting the golden bracelets of the Sabines, betrayed to them the fortress on condition that they would give her the bright things they wore on their arms. But the Sabines, despising her treachery, purposely misinterpreted her words, and crushed her as they entered with their glittering shields.

The enemy were now on the point of taking the city, when a stream of water burst from the temple of the god Ja'nus,* and swept them from the walls. Thenceforth the temple of Janus was left open in time of war, that the deity might readily go forth and aid his people.

On the renewal of the struggle, the Sabine women

* Janus, a two-faced god adopted by the Romans from the ancient Etrurians, presided over the commencements of things. The month of January, with which the religious year began, was sacred to Janus, and on its first day offerings of wine and fruit were made to him.

who had been carried off, forgiving the wrong they had suffered, acted as peace-makers between the opposing forces, and persuaded them to enter into a league of amity. The Romans and Sabines were now united, and Romulus and Tatius shared the sovereignty. On the death of the latter, the supreme power was vested in Romulus alone. He is said to have waged successful wars, and finally to have vanished mysteriously in a tempest.

NU'MA POMPIL'IUS, a just and wise Sabine, succeeded Romulus. He established laws and founded the national religion. During his prosperous reign, the Romans were at peace, and the temple of Janus was kept closed.

TULLUS HOSTIL'IUS was the third king of Rome. Shortly after his accession war broke out with Alba Longa, and it was agreed to decide the quarrel by a combat between three brothers on each side,—the Roman Horatii (*ho-ra'she-i*) and the Curiatii (*ku-re-a'she-i*) on the part of the Albans. All fell but one of the Horatii; so Alba became subject to the Romans.

As the victorious Horatius approached his home, he was met by his weeping sister, who had been betrothed to one of the slain Curiatii. Enraged at her tears and reproaches, he stabbed her to the heart, crying, "So perish the Roman maiden who mourns for her country's enemy." For this murder Horatius was condemned to death by the judges; but he appealed to the Roman people, and they, in consideration of his services, spared his life.

King Tullus afterward destroyed Alba, and removed its inhabitants to Rome.

ANCUS MARTIUS, the next monarch, extended the Roman dominion to the sea, and founded the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber.

TARQUIN THE ELDER, a stranger from an Etruscan town, succeeded Ancus. He is distinguished among the Roman kings for his grand public works. The Great

Sewer and Circus were built by this monarch, who also laid the foundations of the Capitoline temple of Jupiter.—Tarquin was the victim of a conspiracy planned by the sons of Ancus.

SERVIUS TULLIUS, son-in-law of Tarquin, was chosen by the people in his stead, and proved to be one of their greatest sovereigns. He made important changes in the constitution, forming a new Assembly, and dividing the people for the purposes of suffrage into classes and centuries according to their property. He enlarged the limits of the city, and inclosed its seven hills within walls that lasted nearly eight centuries.

In his old age, Servius incurred the hatred of the nobles, in consequence of his favoring the interests of the people, and contemplating the substitution of a republican government for monarchy. A plot was laid to murder him, and make his son-in-law Tarquin king in his stead. It was carried out while the people were away in the fields, gathering their grain.

As the body of Servius lay in the highway, Tullia, the wife of the new-made monarch, inhumanly drove over it, dyeing her chariot-wheels with her father's blood. The Romans long called the scene of this event "the wicked street."

TARQUIN THE PROUD, the last king of Rome, extended his sovereignty over all the Latin towns. But he repealed the just and beneficent laws of his predecessor, and rendered himself hateful by his tyranny. Finally a foul outrage committed by his son led to a revolution headed by Ju'nus Bru'tus. The family of Tarquin was banished forever, and the regal government abolished, 509 B. C.

Roman Institutions and Religion.—According to the early constitution, the kingly power in Rome was limited by a Senate, and an Assembly of citizens. Kings were elected by the former, and confirmed by the people. The

citizens were divided into "*tribes*," and these were made up of "*houses*." The heads of these noble or patrician "*houses*," known as the *patres* or fathers, composed the senate or king's council.

There were also dependants on the different "*houses*," called *clients*, who were protected by their patrons, but had no political rights. Below this class were the *slaves*.

Another body, however, in time grew up—the *Plebs*,



TULLIA DRIVING OVER HER FATHER'S BODY.

or Commonalty, composed of free settlers, or conquered communities transported to Rome. These Plebeians (*ple-be'yans*) were freemen; still they were politically subject, socially inferior to the Patricians.

The Romans drew much of their mythology from the Greeks, and worshipped the same great gods (p. 44), with

inferior ones of their own addition. From the Etruscans they adopted the practice of employing soothsayers, to interpret the will of heaven by inspecting the entrails of victims offered in sacrifice.

Special reverence was paid to the La'res, or household gods, images of which were placed in the hall or ranged round the hearth of every dwelling. Vesta had virgin priestesses called *Vestals*, who kept a fire perpetually burning in her temple. But Mars, the god of war, was perhaps the favorite object of worship. The month of March, which began the Roman year, was named from him, and on the first day of that month a festival was celebrated in his honor.

The Romans, like the Greeks, consulted oracles. They also referred to certain mysterious volumes called the Sib'ylline Books, which were carefully guarded by officers appointed for the purpose, and consulted when the gods had manifested their wrath by prodigies or public calamities.

The Roman Kings.

Romulus,	753-716.	{ Greek cities founded in southern Italy: Rhe'gium,
Numa Pompilius,	715-672.	
Tullus Hostilius,	672-640.	Manasseh, king of Judah.
Ancus Martius,	640-616.	Cyax'ares, king of Persia.
Tarquinius Priscus,	616-578.	Pharaoh Necho; Nebuchadnezzar.
Servius Tullius,	578-534.	Cyrus; Cræsus; Belshazzar; Daniel.
Tarquinius Superbus,	534-509.	Second Temple built by the Jews.

Dates uncertain; history fabulous.



CHAPTER X.

THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

The Medes and Persians.—At a very early period, a people called Medes inhabited the country bordering the Caspian Sea on the south and south-west. Little is

known of their history till they became tributary to the kings of Assyria, about 700 B. C. South of Media lived the Persians, an industrious people, partly nomadic, in part tillers of the soil. An Aryan monarchy was established in Persia by Achæmenes (*a-kem'e-neež*), the founder of an illustrious line to which even the haughty Xerxes was proud to trace his pedigree.

As the Medes grew in strength, they became impatient of Assyrian tyranny, and one of their kings, after making Persia a dependency, raised the standard of revolt. He fell in an attack on Nineveh; but his son, the great Cyax'ares, with the aid of the Babylonians, captured and destroyed that city, 625 B. C. (p. 19), and made the Medo-Persian Empire first among the Asiatic powers.

Not long, however, did the Medes enjoy their supremacy. They gradually fell into the effeminate habits of the conquered Assyrians, and in the reign of their next king Astyages (*as-ti'a-jeež*) they were obliged to yield the foremost place to the more warlike Persians.

Astyages, as is the story, inferred from a vision that his daughter's son would some day supersede him. To prevent this, he married her to the tributary prince of Persia, whom he regarded as inferior to a Mede of even middle rank, and when her son Cyrus was born ordered him to be killed. But the infant was saved, and having afterward been discovered by his grandfather, was sent to his parents in Persia. There he learned to despise the luxury and indolence of the Medes, and formed the project of establishing the independence of his country. At his instigation the Persians revolted, the Median king was overthrown, and Persia became predominant in the new empire, 558 B. C.

Cyrus.—The reign of Cyrus embraced a remarkable series of brilliant enterprises. Lyd'ia, on the eastern coast of the Ægean, was the first to feel his conquering

arm. This country had extended its sway over nearly all Asia Minor, and its king Crœ'sus was distinguished far and wide for his prowess and wealth. Writers and philosophers of high repute visited his court ; among them, the fable-writer Æ'sop, and So'lon, the wise man of Athens. Crœsus, after displaying his treasures to the latter, asked him if he did not consider Lydia's king a happy man. Solon answered that life was full of vicissitudes, and that no man could be pronounced happy while he was yet living.

Alarmed at the growing power of Persia and burning to avenge his dethroned relative Astyages, Crœsus led a large army into the territory of Cyrus. It is said that he had previously consulted the oracle of Delphi, and received from Apollo the response that, if he made war on the Persians, *he would destroy a great empire*. This proved to be his own. Cyrus finally besieged him in his capital Sardis, took the city, and annexed the proud Lydian Empire to the Persian (554 B. C.).

Herod'otus tells us that at the capture of Sardis the life of the fallen king was saved by his dumb son, who, seeing him in the act of being killed by a Persian, for the first time burst into speech and made known his father's rank. After this escape, Crœsus was sentenced to be burned alive. As he was chained to the pile, the saying of the Greek sage occurred to him, and he ejaculated, "Solon ! Solon ! Solon !" Cyrus demanded the meaning of the exclamation, and struck with the wisdom of Solon's remark liberated the captive, and treated him as a friend and confidant.

The Grecian cities of Asia Minor next submitted to the sceptre of Persia. Conquests in the distant East followed, and finally the Babylonian Empire, as we have already seen (p. 22), yielded to the victorious Persian arms (538 B. C.). The great Persian Empire under Cyrus

thus stretched from the Indus to the Ægean Sea and the borders of Egypt.

Cyrus the Great is said to have fallen in battle with a northern horde, 529 B. C. Their savage queen, filling a skin with human blood, contemptuously flung into it his severed head, and bade him there satisfy his thirst.

Though ambitious of conquest, Cyrus appears not to have prized it for the spoils it yielded, but to have dispensed these with a princely hand among his followers,—who in their turn were ready to pour out life and fortune at his call. Cræsus once told him that, by keeping his treasures to himself, he might have become the richest monarch in the world. “And what think you,” asked Cyrus, “might those treasures have amounted to?” Cræsus named the sum; whereupon Cyrus informed his lords that he was in want of money, and at once a larger sum was brought him than Cræsus had mentioned. “Look!” said Cyrus; “here are my treasures; the chests I keep them in are the hearts of my subjects.”

Camby'ses, the son of Cyrus, added Egypt to his father's empire. The first important city reached in the invasion of this country was captured by stratagem. Taking advantage of the superstition of the Egyptians, Cambyses placed cats, dogs, and other of their sacred animals, in front of his troops; and the garrison, fearful of injuring these objects of their veneration, allowed their assailants to enter the city without resistance.

Numerous stories illustrate the tyranny of this monarch. Learning one day from his chief favorite that the Persians thought him too fond of wine, to convince them that it did not affect the steadiness of his hand or the strength of his understanding, he drank to greater excess than ever before. Then ordering the son of his informant to be brought in, he drew his bow and taking careful aim pierced the heart of the unfortunate youth with an

arrow. "Now," said he, turning to the trembling father, "you can decide whether the Persians are right or wrong in supposing that wine deprives me of reason."

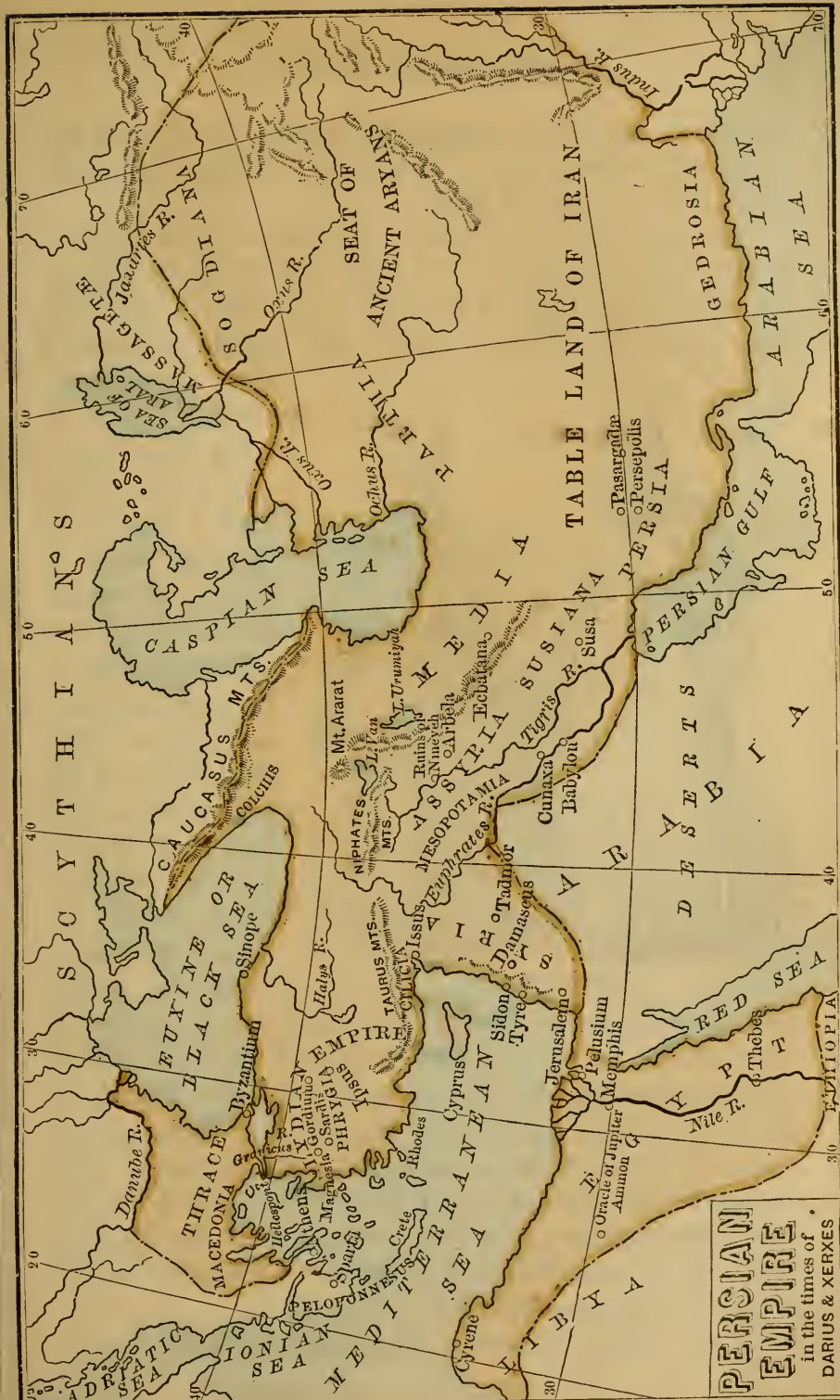
On another occasion, when Croesus represented to Cambyses the evils of a tyrannical government, the latter immediately condemned him to death. But the officers in charge delayed enforcing the sentence, supposing that the king, when he recovered from his anger, would repent of his hasty command. He did so, and hastening to find whether Croesus was alive, embraced him with delight, but the next moment ordered to execution the officers who had ventured to trifle with his directions.

Darius I., Hystaspes, (521-486 B. C.), obtained the Persian crown in the following singular manner. On the death of Cambyses, an impostor mounted the throne. Thereupon seven nobles plotted together and slew him; they further agreed to ride out at sunrise, and that he whose horse first neighed should reign. The horse of Darius decided the question in favor of his master, who became the greatest of Persia's rulers. He regulated the government, dividing his vast empire into twenty provinces. A large standing army supported his authority; and royal roads, along which his messages were transmitted with wonderful speed, traversed the country.

Darius extended his conquests into Europe. Thrace and Macedonia were added to his dominions, and the Persian Empire now reached from the deserts of India to the borders of Greece.

Both Darius and his son Xerxes vainly attempted to subjugate the Greeks. Under the successors of Xerxes the Persians gradually became corrupted. Luxury and extravagance did their work, and at last the enfeebled empire fell an easy prey to a Macedonian prince (331 B. C.).

Architectural Works, Religion, etc.—The principal architectural works of the Persians were their palaces. The



PERSIAN EMPIRE
in the times of
DARIUS & XERXES

one at Persep'olis was gorgeous beyond description, the walls and ceilings of its apartments being resplendent with amber, ivory, and gold.

The monarchs were honored by their subjects with the most servile reverence. To approach the king without prostrating the body or with hands withdrawn from the long sleeves of the gown, was death. As an instance of



GUEBRE PRIESTS.

their devotion to royalty, it is related that once, when the overloaded vessel of Xerxes was in danger of wreck, his courtiers vied with each other in leaping into the sea, that they might lighten the galley and thus save their king.

The religious system of the ancient Persians, set forth in sacred

writings called the *Aves'ta*, was founded or reformed by Zoroas'ter. It recognized one eternal Supreme Being, who produced by his creative word two great Principles, the one of light and purity, the other of darkness and evil. Between these a struggle was constantly maintained in the souls of men. Those who obeyed the one were admitted at death into the abode of the blessed; while those who submitted to the other were banished to a region of everlasting woe.

This earlier faith was afterward corrupted by the

Ma'gi, who introduced the fire-worship still prevailing among a few of the Persians (the Guebres) who are unbelievers in the doctrines of Mohammed.

600 B. C.—Nineveh in the hands of the Medes. Cyaxares king of Media, Nebuchadnezzar of Babylonia, Pharaoh Necho of Egypt, Jehoiakim of Judah. Alcæus (*al-se'us*) and Sappho (*saf'fo*) originating lyric poetry in Greece. Carthage exploring the Mediterranean. Tarquinius Priscus building his great works in Rome. Solon. Æsop.

CHAPTER XI.

PERIOD OF GRECIAN GLORY.

Solon's Code.—The history of the states of ancient Greece has mainly to do with the kingdom of Sparta and republican Athens. The former we left the leading military power in Greece. The latter we followed to the death of her last monarch Codrus, and the establishment of magistrates called *Archons*, chosen from the aristocracy.

Internal disturbances followed this change, and at length the people demanded from the nobles a written code. This led to the legislation of Dra'co (624 B. C.), whose laws, so cruel that they were said to have been written with blood, punished even the slightest offences with death.

A better code was framed by the great law-giver Solon, one of the Seven Wise Men of Greece, 594 B. C. To relieve his impoverished countrymen, Solon freed their mortgaged lands, and annulled the law which made slavery the penalty of debt. The people were divided into four classes according to their income, all having the privilege of voting in the public assembly. Nine archons, responsible to the citizens for their conduct in office, were annu-

ally elected; and the court of the Areop'agus was charged with the duty of trying capital offences and guarding the public morals. Still the Athenians were dissatisfied. Party dissensions were renewed; and in spite of Solon's efforts, Pisis'tratus, who traced his descent to Codrus, managed to establish himself as sole ruler, 560 B. C.

The Tyrants.—Pisistratus the Tyrant* administered the government without either severity or injustice. He ornamented Athens with noble buildings, founded the first public library in Greece, and strove in various ways to ingratiate himself with the people.

Hip'pias and Hipparchus, sons of Pisistratus, imitated the liberal policy of their father. They too encouraged art and literature, and so flourishing was Athens during their joint reign that their period has been likened to the golden age. But Hipparchus was assassinated, and after this Hippias became a suspicious despot. In a few years (510 B. C.) he was forced to leave Athens.

Tyrants also reigned in many of the other Grecian states, although in most of them a republican form of government ultimately prevailed.

Changes in the Constitution.—Shortly after Hippias was driven into exile, the constitution was changed so as to give the people additional privileges. Ostracism was introduced, by which they banished obnoxious persons without the formality of trial. An assembly being convened, they wrote on pieces of pottery (*os'traka*) the name of the one whom they desired to expel. Six thousand votes against any individual obliged him to withdraw from the city within ten days, and remain in exile for at first ten, and afterward five, years.

Under this democratic constitution, Athens rapidly increased in warlike spirit and power.

* This term is here used in its original signification of *supreme ruler*, without any reference to an abuse of power.

Græco-Persian Wars.—About the beginning of the fifth century B. C., the Ionian cities of Asia Minor rebelled against Darius, and Athens sent a fleet to aid them. This interference aroused the resentment of the Persian monarch, who, that he might be continually reminded of the insult, required a servant each day at dinner to exclaim three times, “Master, remember the Athenians!”

In 492 B. C., Darius dispatched an expedition against Greece, but it ingloriously failed. Before making a second attempt, he sent envoys to demand from the several states earth and water, the usual tokens of submission. Many of the cities yielded; but Athens and Sparta answered by throwing the Persian heralds into pits and wells, and bidding them there find earth and water. These rival states now laid aside their jealousies, and prepared to meet the common foe.

BATTLE OF MARATHON.—On came the army of Darius, commanded by his ablest generals, with directions to conquer Greece and bring back the Athenians in chains. Not dreaming of defeat, they took with them great blocks of marble, to raise a monument in commemoration of their victory. After some successes in the Ægean Sea, the Persians disembarked on the coast of Attica. Advancing to the plain of Marathon (see Map, p. 40), 120,000 strong, they found an army of 10,000 Athenians drawn up to meet them (490 B. C.).

An urgent message had been sent to the Spartans for assistance. They at once prepared to aid their allies; but as their religious notions prevented them from starting till the moon was full, they arrived too late to take part in the engagement. The honor of the day, however, was shared by the city of Plataea (*pla-té'ä*), which promptly sent all its fighting men to the support of the Athenians. The Greeks, under Miltiades, advanced to the charge at a quick pace; the Persians, withstanding their attack for a

short time only, were soon in headlong flight. Six thousand of their number were left dead on the field, and the survivors returned to Asia in such of their galleys as escaped destruction.

Miltiades became for a time the idol of the Athenians. But on his failing in a subsequent expedition, the ungrateful people cast him into prison, where he died of a wound.

OSTRACISM OF ARISTIDES.—Aristi'des the Just, and Themis'tocles, an aspiring statesman to whose ambitious spirit the trophies of Miltiades would allow no repose, now became prominent at Athens. But political differences sprung up between them, and through the intrigues of his rival Aristides was ostracized. While the people were voting, a stranger to Aristides, unable to write, handed him a potsherd, and asked him to place on it the name of Aristides. "What harm has he done you?" said the honest patriot, complying with the request. "None," the man replied; "but I am tired of hearing him called the Just."

Aristides left his country, praying that nothing might happen which would make the Athenians regret his absence. His hopes, however, were not realized, for he was soon recalled to aid Themistocles in repelling a formidable Persian invasion. "Themistocles," he said when they first met, "let us still be rivals, but let our strife be which best may serve our country."

Expedition of Xerxes.—Xerxes, the successor of Darius, had long been raising a great army from all parts of the Persian Empire. It is stated that his forces numbered over two millions of soldiers, besides slaves and attendants, and that they drank rivers dry on their march.

To reach Greece, the Persians had to cross the Hellespont. The first bridge constructed for their passage was broken up by a violent storm; which so enraged Xerxes that he beheaded the workmen who had been engaged in its

erection, ordered the sea to be scourged with a monstrous whip, and had heavy chains thrown into it as symbols of its subjection to his control. Another bridge was soon built; and over it for seven days and nights without cessation poured the living throng, glittering with the wealth of the East—the largest army ever raised by man.

THERMOPYLÆ.—Athens, meanwhile, under the direction of Themistocles, had prepared for the approaching struggle by equipping a powerful fleet. Sparta and many of the other states, forgetting their internal differences, united with her for the common defence.

At the Pass of Thermopylæ, a narrow defile leading from Thessaly into lower Greece (see Map, p. 40), the Persian myriads were confronted by a handful of three hundred Spartans under their king Leonidas, supported by about six thousand allies from the other states. Xerxes scornfully bade them give up their arms. "Come and take them," was the undaunted reply. The Persian king supposed that the little band would soon fall back, but finding that they stood their ground at last gave directions for the attack.

For several days the Persians, who were driven into the fight by the lash, were held in check; but at length a secret path leading to the rear of Leonidas was betrayed to the enemy. Surrounded now by hostile multitudes, Leonidas prepared to die in his country's behalf, for an oracle had declared, "Sparta or her king must perish." After making frightful havoc in the barbarian ranks, the heroic Spartans were at last overwhelmed beneath the darts and arrows of their assailants, 480 B. C.

SALAMIS.—The Persians now advanced into Attica and burned the capital. But the Athenians had previously retired in their vessels to Salamis, for the priestess at Delphi had warned them that Athe'ne could not save her beloved city. "When all besides is lost," said the oracle, "a wooden wall shall still shelter the citizens;" and it was

generally believed that by a wooden wall were meant the ships.

The fleet was accordingly made ready, and in the great naval battle of Sal'amis the genius of Themistocles overthrew the Persian squadron. Xerxes, who, clad in royal robes and seated on a throne of gold, watched the engagement from a neighboring hill, hastily fled. He left 350,-



THEMISTOCLES RECEIVING THE TROPHY OF VICTORY.

000 men to continue the war, but these were completely routed the following year (479 B. C.) in the battle of Plataea, by Aristides and the Spartan king Pausanias.

The same day a victory was gained at Mycale in Asia Minor, over the Persian forces in Ionia. Only a miserable remnant of the invading host escaped into Asia.

Athenian Supremacy.—Athens was quickly rebuilt and strongly fortified by its energetic inhabitants. Under the able leadership of Ci'mon, son of Miltiades, they achieved many brilliant successes over the Persians, and saw their city beautified with treasures wrested from the barbarians.

But the age of Pericles (469–429 B. C.), who rose to power on the ostracism of Cimon, was the proudest period of Athenian history. His aim was to make his native city the seat of art and refinement, and procure for her the supremacy of Greece. Success crowned his efforts. Athens became a grand imperial city, extending protection to the less powerful states, and exacting from them in return obedience and tribute. Her fleet was mistress of the eastern Mediterranean; wealth flowed into her treasury; and most of the islands of the Ægean, with many colonies and conquered territories, acknowledged her sway.

Sparta, meantime, viewed with jealousy the ascendancy of her rival; while the arrogant conduct of Athens alienated the subject-allies. Bœotia rebelled, and the Athenian army, at first successful, suffered a disastrous defeat in the battle of Corone'a (447 B. C.). Other revolts followed; and at last the whole Grecian world became involved in a struggle known in history as the Peloponne'sian War.

Grecian Literature and Art. — The literature of no country, ancient or modern, has exerted so powerful and lasting an influence as that of Greece. The genius of her poets, orators, and philosophers, bore fruit that has ever since been the admiration of the world.

After Homer composed his glorious epics, Greek lyric poetry took its rise. Alcæus (600 B. C.) invented a metre known by his name, and the graceful Sappho so excited the admiration of Greece that she was called "the tenth Muse." Solon, on hearing one of her poems read, de-

clared that he would be unwilling to die till he had learned it by heart.

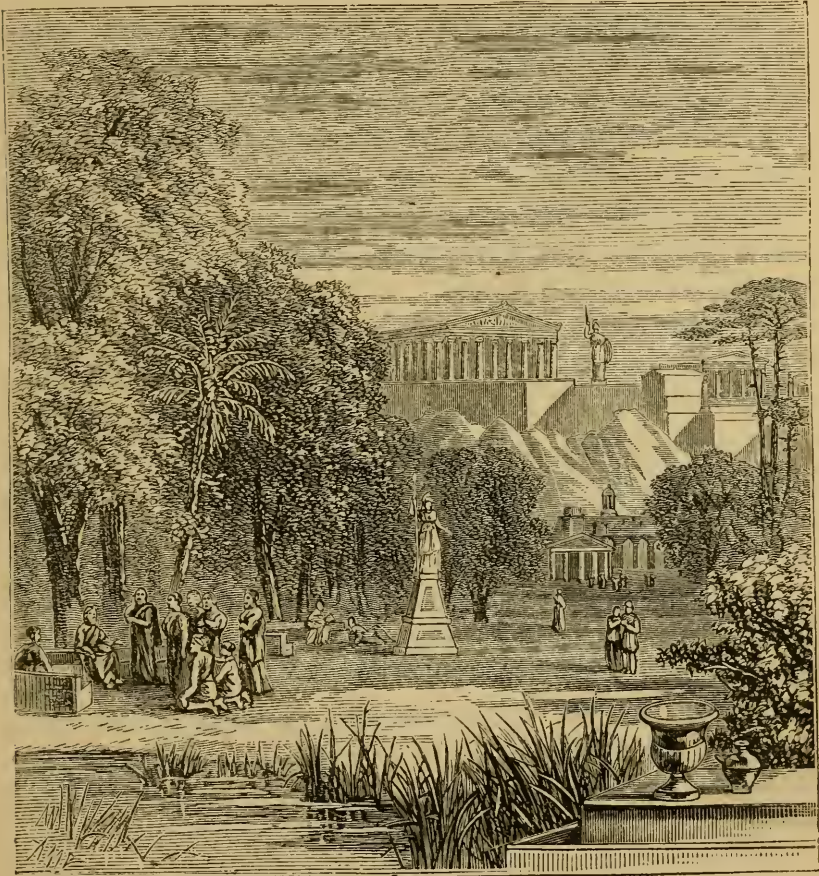
Pindar was distinguished for the grandeur of his odes ; Æschylus (*es'ke-lus*) was the creator of tragedy ; Tha'les, of Mile'tus, one of the Seven Sages, founded the Ionic school of philosophy ; and Pythag'oras, that which bears his name. With such reverence did his disciples look up to Pythagoras, that when asked the reason of their belief or practice they were wont to answer, as the shortest way of silencing all objection, "He himself said so ;" whence the current Latin phrase *ipse dixit*.

In the fifth century B. C. flourished Herodotus, "the father of history," to whom we are indebted for many delightful stories of the olden time,—and Socrates, the immortal philosopher. Plato, the illustrious disciple of Socrates, who taught in the grove of Academus, embodied the great ideas of his master in Dialogues so replete with sublime conceptions that Cicero said, "If Jupiter were to speak Greek, he would use the language of Plato."

The age of Pericles was the golden period of Grecian art and literature. Soph'ocles, the tragic poet, called by the ancients the Attic Bee, then brought the drama to perfection ; and Eurip'ides, his contemporary, excelled in the representation of passion and the delineation of character. On his cenotaph was inscribed, "All Greece is the monument of Euripides." The comic poet Aristoph'anes also began his dramatic career ; of him it was said, "Nature made but one, and broke the mould in which he was cast."

Phid'ias, the sculptor, adorned Athens with the choicest works of genius. The rocky height of the Acrop'olis glittered with statues and temples, above which towered a bronze Minerva of colossal size, visible to the mariner on the distant ocean. The Par'thenon, Minerva's temple, was adorned with an ivory statue of the goddess, the

work of Phidias ; but the masterpiece of this artist was the immense figure of Jupiter in the temple at Olympia, sixty feet high, made of ivory draped with gold.



THE ACROPOLIS FROM THE GROVE OF ACADEMUS.

Painting also flourished ; Pol-yg-no'tus and other artists embellished Athens with their pictures, and helped to make her the glory of Greece.

500 B. C.—Republican Athens recognized as the head of Greece. Persian Empire widely extended under Darius. Ionian colonies of Asia Minor in rebellion against Persia. Rome, under consuls, the scene of struggles between plebeians and patricians. Confucius in China.

CHAPTER XII.

DECLINE OF GREECE.

The Peloponnesian War (431–404 B. C.) is the name given to a long struggle for supremacy between the two great representatives of aristocracy and democracy, Athens and Sparta. The other states arrayed themselves on either side, partly according to their political sympathies and partly according to race—the Ionian Greeks for the most part aiding the Athenians, while the Dorians of the Peloponnesus supported Sparta.

A slight cause sufficed to provoke hostilities. Corcyra (*kor-si'ră*), an island in the Ionian Sea (Map, p. 40), having appealed to Athens for aid to meet a threatened attack of Corinth, an Athenian fleet was sent against the Corinthians. Corinth complained to the Peloponnesian Alliance at Sparta, other states brought charges against Athens, and finally war was declared.

A Spartan army was soon overrunning Attica; but Pericles gathered the people within the walls of Athens, and confined himself to naval operations on the Peloponnesian coasts. He would not risk an engagement with the Spartans, replying to those who demanded to be led against the enemy, "Trees cut down may shoot again, but men are not to be replaced."

The crowded condition of the city brought on a pestilence, which carried off the inhabitants by thousands, and among them Pericles himself. His death left Athens, at this critical period, in the hands of demagogues, who were ready to sacrifice the public interests to their own selfish purposes. After several triumphs, followed by reverses, the Athenians in 422 B. C. met with a decisive defeat, and the next year peace was made.

CAREER OF ALCIBIADES.—Hostilities, however, were

soon recommenced, principally through the influence of Alcibiades (*al-se-bi'a-deez*), the nephew of Pericles, an able statesman, but dissolute, vain, and ambitious, as he was sagacious and brave. It is told of him, in illustration of his character, that the business of a public assembly was once stopped till the people caught and brought back to him a pet quail which he carried around in accordance with an Athenian custom, and on this occasion purposely allowed to escape in order to show his importance.

This popular leader formed the bold project of conquering Sicily, and persuaded his countrymen to fit out an armament for that purpose. The command was shared by him with two others. But the Athenians recalled Alcibiades before their fleet reached Syracuse; and the expedition, deprived of the genius that might have made it a success, proved a disastrous failure. Athens, instead of acquiring wealth and glory, lost her ships and army, the command of the ocean, and the allegiance of her subject-allies.

For a time the downfall of the state was stayed by the genius of Alcibiades, who, after having taken refuge in Sparta and at the court of a Persian satrap, was restored to the favor of his countrymen and to command; but the fickle people again disgraced him, and he left Athens (407 B. C.), to return no more. Not long afterward, while he was living in Phrygia, a body of armed men sent by his enemies to take his life and afraid to attack him even with superior numbers in fair fight, set fire to his house, and dispatched him with their weapons as he rushed forth sword in hand.

FALL OF ATHENS.—Soon after Alcibiades went into exile, Athens lost its independence. Lysan'der, the commander of the Spartan fleet, captured the Athenian squadron at the battle of *Æ'gos Pot'amos* (*goat's river*), in the Hellespont. Lysander next blockaded the city itself,

and with the aid of a Peloponnesian army led by the Spartan kings, took it when reduced by famine, 404 B. C. Thus imperial Athens was humiliated; her fortifications were destroyed; and Sparta her rival became the arrogant mistress of Greece.

The history of the Peloponnesian War was written by the contemporary historian Thucydides (*thu-sid'-e-deez*), the Athenian, in a style universally commended for its conciseness and energy.

Oppressive Rule of Sparta.—The Greeks, by destroying the supremacy of Athens, simply exchanged masters. Instead, however, of the yoke of a polished state, they now wore that of harsh, rapacious Sparta. She had assumed the character of Liberator of Greece; but her triumph was followed by the establishment of oligarchies in the Grecian cities, and despôts supported by her arms wielded unlimited power.

At Athens the democratic constitution was abolished, and the government was placed in the hands of thirty aristocrats. These men, notorious in history as the Thirty Tyrants, ruled with injustice and cruelty. But their reign of terror was quickly ended by a band of Athenian exiles. The Thirty were defeated in battle, their leader was slain, and democracy re-established, 403 B. C.

The unjust doom of the guileless Socrates darkens the next page of Athenian history. He was the most enlightened of heathen sages, inculcated the immortality of the soul, and looked above the absurd mythology of his native land for something higher and purer to believe. Charged with setting up new deities and corrupting the young, he was sentenced to drink the fatal hemlock. In vain his friends provided means of escape, and besought him to fly. He firmly refused to violate the laws, and calmly drained the cup of poison in the midst of his weeping associates.

Expedition of the Ten Thousand.—During the latter part of the Peloponnesian War the Spartans had been aided by Cyrus the Younger, the Persian viceroy in Asia Minor. Cyrus embraced the Spartan side, in order to secure the co-operation of the most warlike of the Greeks in a meditated attempt to force his way to the Persian throne.

On the death of his father in 405 B. C., the crown fell to his elder brother, Artaxerxes II., called Mnemon (*ne'-mon*) on account of his good memory. Cyrus thereupon made preparations to displace Artaxerxes, and collected a force of more than 10,000 Spartans and other Greeks, concealing from them at first the object of his expedition.

In 401 B. C., these, with 100,000 barbarian troops, marched from Sardis into the territories of the Great King. But at Cunax'a they encountered Artaxerxes with 900,000 men; and, although the Greeks were victorious, Cyrus was slain.

The barbarian followers of Cyrus now quickly dispersed, and the Greeks were left alone in the midst of enemies. Their generals were soon after entrapped and murdered by the Persians; but they immediately chose new leaders, the most famous of whom was Xenophon the Athenian. The latter conducted them with remarkable prudence through incredible dangers and sufferings to the Grecian colonies on the Black Sea.

Xenophon has given an account of this memorable Retreat of the Ten Thousand in his *Anab'asis*, one of the ornaments of Grecian literature. It has been said of Xenophon, "The Graces dictated his language, and the goddess of persuasion dwelt on his lips."

War with Persia.—Incensed at the assistance given by Sparta to Cyrus, Artaxerxes now prepared to retaliate. But the splendid victories of her king A-ge-si-la'us in

Asia Minor caused the Persian monarch to tremble on his throne. Unfortunately, in the midst of his brilliant career Agesilaus was obliged to return, for his country was in danger from the neighboring states, bought up by the bribes of Artaxerxes. "I have been conquered by thirty thousand Persian archers," bitterly exclaimed Agesilaus, as he re-embarked, alluding to the *dar'ic*, a Persian coin which bore the image of an archer.

In the struggle which followed, called the Corinthian War, Sparta lost much of her naval power, but retained her predominance in Greece by the shameful Peace of Antal'cidas (387 B. C.), which left the cities of Asia Minor completely at the mercy of Persia.

Selfish Sparta profited by this treaty; but Greece generally, weakened by intestine strife, lay helpless at the feet of the Great King, who now assumed the character of arbiter in the Grecian quarrels. "Alas for Greece!" said Agesilaus, Sparta's best citizen and greatest commander; "she has killed enough of her sons to have conquered all the barbarians!"

Theban Supremacy.—The domineering aggressions of Sparta continued after the Peace of Antalcidas. In 382 B. C. the citadel of Thebes was seized by Lacedæmonian troops, and a tyrannous oligarchy established in that city. Three years later, a band of Theban exiles, headed by the patriot Pelop'idas, restored the independence of their country by a bloody revolution.

Thebes now rapidly rose to greatness, through the talents and virtues of Pelopidas and Epaminon'das his friend. The famous victory of the Thebans at Leuc'tra (371 B. C.), in which 4,000 Lacedæmonians together with their king were slain, secured for Thebes the sovereignty of Greece. While the issue of the battle was still doubtful, Epaminondas animated his soldiers to the final charge by exclaiming, "Only one step forward!" and the action was

decided by the resistless onset of Pelopidas, who led the "Sacred Band."

On their return to Thebes, the heroes were brought to trial for retaining their command beyond the prescribed time, but were acquitted. The enemies of Epaminondas then tried to disgrace him by having him elected public scavenger ; but the magnanimous patriot was beyond the reach of their malice. "I accept the position," said he ; "if it will not reflect honor upon me, I will reflect honor on it."

Invasions of the Peloponnesus.—Following up the advantage gained at Leuctra, Epaminondas next entered the Peloponnesus, and ravaging the country as he moved on threatened the Lacedæmonian capital. But the Spartans, aided by their wives and children, prepared for a desperate resistance ; and the city, though no walls protected it, was saved by the courage of the old Agesilaus.

Epaminondas, however, recalled the Messe'nian exiles, built for them the stronghold Messe'ne, and restored the ancient independence of the long-enslaved state. History designates this event as the Return of the Messenians (369 B. C.).

Jealousy of the power of Thebes raised her up many enemies, and in 362 B. C. Epaminondas once more invaded the Peloponnesus to re-establish her influence there. Sparta was again indebted for safety to the vigilant Agesilaus ; but at Mantine'a the Lacedæmonian troops recoiled before the furious charge of the Thebans.

In the very moment of victory Epaminondas fell, pierced by a javelin. The weapon remained in his breast, nor would his friends remove it, knowing that he would die the instant it was withdrawn. The Theban chief bore the agony of his wound until assured that his triumph was complete. "Then all is well," he said, and drawing out the fatal spear-head, breathed his last. In answer to the

sorrowing spectators who lamented that so great a man died childless, Epaminondas exclaimed, "I leave you two fair daughters—Leuctra and Mantinea."

Epaminondas was a pure, unselfish patriot; a refined, moral, and generous citizen. Cicero calls him the greatest man Greece ever produced.

The battle of Mantinea, which all Greece watched in suspense, was indecisive in its results. Thebes, the head of Greece while Epaminondas lived, now sank to her former level. The glory of Hellas had departed. Exhausted by these struggles and torn by the Social and Sacred Wars that followed, she rapidly declined. Her ruin was due to the mutual jealousies of the several states. Disunited and demoralized, Greece at last lay prostrate and ready for the spoiler—and in Philip of Macedon the spoiler was soon to appear.

Social Life of the Greeks.—A few particulars as to the domestic life of the Greeks at this period, may not be uninteresting.

Their houses were for the most part as plain, as their temples and public edifices were magnificent. The floors were of stone, and the walls were white until the time of Alcibiades, who was the first that we read of as having them painted. The houses generally stood back from the street, and the religious sentiment of the residents often placed in front of them a laurel-tree or altar, sacred to Apollo, or marked some inscription on the door as a good omen. The interior consisted of apartments surrounding an open court, about which ran porticoes for exercise, while in the centre was an altar on which sacrifices were offered to the household gods.

The women's chambers were entirely separate from those of the men; and the slaves, of which the rich families had a great number while even the poorest citizen could boast of one, were domiciled in an upper story,

reached by stairs on the outside of the house. The roofs were flat, and served as agreeable promenades in the cool of the day. Curtains were sometimes used instead of doors ; and, chimneys being unknown, smoke was carried off through openings in the ceilings. Roses and violets were cultivated ; and, to set off their beauty and sweetness, they were planted side by side with onions.

The Greeks had three meals daily, answering to our breakfast, lunch, and dinner. The last, eaten about sunset, was prepared by the mistress of the house herself, or by female slaves under her direction. Fish, poultry, and meat, were followed by a lighter course or dessert. The Greeks were fond of pork, especially sausages ; and beans, lettuce, and cabbage, were their favorite vegetables. They ate their soup with spoons ; but helped themselves to the other dishes with their fingers, which they afterward wiped on a piece of bread instead of a napkin.

The men reclined at their meals, a couch being provided for every two ; the women and children sat. Guests invited to a banquet were met by slaves, who removed their sandals, washed their feet, and furnished them with water for their hands. Wine was brought in with the second course, and then conversation became general, riddles were proposed, and those who solved them were crowned with garlands. The guests also amused themselves with dice or draughts, and at sumptuous banquets musicians and hired dancers contributed to the entertainment.

The dress of the Greeks consisted of a tunic, and an outer robe or shawl, called the *pallium*. The tunic was fastened round the waist with a girdle, and over each shoulder with a large buckle ; but the Athenian women, having on one occasion killed with these buckles a soldier who alone of his company returned alive from a military expedition, were afterward required to exchange the short

sleeveless tunic thus fastened, for a long loose dress with flowing sleeves.

The pallium was square, often bright-colored, and fastened over the right shoulder with a clasp. No hat or cap was ordinarily worn, and in case of rain the pallium was pulled over the head as a protection; it also served to cover the face with, in case of sudden or intense grief. Shoes or sandals were used by the better classes; many of the lower orders (and sometimes even philosophers—Socrates, for instance) went barefooted.



GRECIAN MATRON.

Writing was done either with ink (generally made from soot) on prepared skins, bark, or papy'rus; or with a sharp-pointed instrument (in Latin *stylus*, whence our word *style*), on thin sheets of lead or layers of wax. A well-furnished house had a room set apart as a library;

and during the glorious days of Athens many private persons had large collections of books, to which in some cases the public were allowed free access.

400 B. C.—Sparta at the head of Greece. Socrates still alive; Plato; Xenophon; Thucydides; Epaminondas. Artaxerxes Mnemon king of Persia. Retreat of the Ten Thousand. Egyptian independence re-established. Dionysius tyrant of Syracuse. Romans besieging Veii; pay given to the soldiers, and taxes levied to defray the increased expenses.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE MACEDONIAN EMPIRE.

Macedonia (*mas-e-do'ne-a*) was a mountainous country, north of Thessaly. Its early history is uncertain; but, though the Macedonians themselves were not Helle'nes, it is probable that their kings belonged to the Hellen'ic race. Tradition relates that some colonists from Argos in search of a home, whom the oracle had advised to be guided in their movements by the direction of goats, were overtaken in their wanderings by a storm near the capital of an early prince of this region; and that, observing a flock of goats rushing for shelter to the city, they followed, obtained possession of the capital, changed its name to *Ægæ* (*e'ge*) (the city of goats), represented a goat upon their standards, and laid the foundations of the Macedonian Empire.

At the close of the sixth century B. C., Macedonia submitted to the Persians; but it regained its freedom after the repulse of Xerxes. A career of conquest followed; and, while the Macedonian dominion was extended, the people became brave and habituated to war. During the brilliant reign of Archelaus (*ar-ke-la'us*), 413-399 B. C., literature and the arts were encouraged. Eminent poets visited the Macedonian court, and the royal palace was adorned by the painter Zeux'is.

A story is told of a contest between this celebrated artist and Parrhasius (*par-ra'she-us*) "the Elegant," a painter of equal renown. Zeuxis represented a cluster of grapes so naturally that the birds came and pecked at them. Elated with this evidence of his skill, he called on his rival to draw back the curtain which he supposed concealed the work that was to dispute the prize with his own. But what he mistook for a curtain was simply the masterly painting of one, and Zeuxis frankly confessed

himself defeated, since he had deceived only birds, while his competitor had imposed on an experienced artist.—The death of Zeuxis was caused by excessive laughter at the picture of an old woman which he himself had painted.

After the assassination of Archela'us (399 B. C.), the Macedonian state was shattered by a storm of revolutions and civil wars. These continued forty years, but were at last brought to an end by the accession of Philip II., 359 B. C.

Philip of Macedon was a monarch of great ability, eloquent, commanding in mien, and full of resources, but withal sensual and unscrupulous. His talents had been developed at Thebes, where, as a hostage, he lived in the stirring times of Pelopidas and Epaminondas. He there became acquainted with the military system of these chiefs, studied the Greek character, and acquired that diplomacy which afterward gained for him many a bloodless victory. Philip improved on the Theban tactics by instituting the **MACEDONIAN PHALANX**—a body finally composed of 16,000 men, armed with short swords for cutting or thrusting, bucklers four feet in length, and pikes so long that those of the sixth rank, couched upon the shoulders of the men before them, extended in front of the line.

AGGRESSIONS UPON GREECE.—Philip boldly encountered the dangers that at first beset his throne; in less than two years he triumphed over all his enemies, and was free to enlarge his kingdom by aggressive wars. He availed himself of the quarrels of the Greeks to seize their colonial cities, conquered Thessaly, and took possession of the rich gold-mines of Thrace. Through the folly of the Thebans he was invited to interfere in the so-called Sacred War, and as a victor he was rewarded with a seat in the Amphietyonic Council. Thus he gained a controlling influence in Greece that materially forwarded his great scheme of subjugating the entire peninsula. The indolent

Athenians, meanwhile, the only people that might have checked Philip's career, were cajoled by the crafty king and remained inactive.

There was one at Athens, however, that saw through Philip's wiles—the eloquent Demosthenes, who for years, despite that monarch's repeated attempts to corrupt so formidable an adversary, struggled nobly against him in defence of Grecian liberty. In this course he was opposed by Phocion (*pho'she-on*), who, though equally incorruptible and elected general five-and-forty times, was more amicably disposed toward Macedon. His concise style and common-sense views were quite the opposite of the fiery energy of Demosthenes, who, when Phocion arose to reply to his harangues, was wont to say, "Here comes the pruner of my periods."

CHÆRONEÆ.—Roused at last by the burning eloquence of Demosthenes, Athens and Thebes made a desperate stand at Chæronea (*k'ër-o-ne'a*), in Bœotia (see Map, p. 40), against the Macedonian monarch, who had passed Thermopylæ and was occupying the cities of Greece. But the charge of his phalanx proved irresistible. The allies were totally defeated; and while Demosthenes, brave as he had been in words, fled from the field, the Sacred Band of Epaminondas was cut down to a man, thus gloriously dying with the independence of Hellas, 338 B. C. Philip remained master of Greece.

HEGEMONY OF MACEDON.—In the following year Philip held a congress of deputies from the Grecian states at Corinth. The hegem'ony of Macedon was recognized by all but Sparta, and her king was appointed commander of an expedition which he had long planned against Persia.

Philip now returned to Macedonia, and there when flushed with wine he is said to have become incensed at his son Alexander, and to have rushed upon him with

drawn sword. But, overcome with drunkenness, he fell upon the floor, and Alexander, pointing at him, scornfully said, "See the man who would pass from Europe to Asia upset in crossing from one couch to another!"

Shortly after this, Philip, in the midst of his preparations, was assassinated at the magnificent nuptials of his daughter, 336 B. C.

Alexander the Great.—In the year 356 B. C., the wife of Philip of Macedon gave birth to a son. The same day on which the king received the news brought tidings of a victory over the Illyr'ians, and of another which he deemed no less important, gained by his horses in the chariot-races at the Olympic Games. Overwhelmed with his good fortune, he exclaimed, "Great Jupiter! in return for so many blessings, send me only some slight reverse." The mother of the young prince traced her descent to Achilles. The son Alexander, known in history as the Great, by his unparalleled deeds rivalled his heroic ancestor.

In early life, Alexander gave proofs of his military genius. He excelled in all manly sports, and when very young leaped upon the back of the fiery steed Buceph'alus, which had hitherto proved unmanageable, and rode him with admirable skill. Bucephalus afterward carried his master through many campaigns, but never allowed any other to mount him.

At Chæronea it was Alexander that vanquished the Sacred Band of Thebes. After the battle, Philip, charmed with his valor, embraced him and said, "My son, seek another empire, for that which I shall leave you is not worthy of you."

ACCESSION OF ALEXANDER.—On the murder of his father, Alexander, then in his twentieth year, succeeded to the throne. He at once marched to Corinth, and the assembled states were again compelled to recognize the hegemony of Macedon, while they made him commander-in-

chief of the Grecian forces in the projected enterprise against the Persians.

Thebes, however, misled by a false report of the young prince's death, rebelled; whereupon Alexander suddenly appeared before the city, carried it by storm, and razed it to the ground, sparing only the house of the poet Pindar. The Thebans that survived were sold into slavery; and all Greece, terror-stricken by this fearful example, abjectly submitted to the conqueror.

INVASION OF PERSIA.—Desiring to consult the oracle at Delphi as to his projected expedition into Asia, Alexander visited the temple of Apollo. But as it was an unlucky day, the priestess refused to approach the shrine. The king grasped her arm and drew her forward. "Ah! my son," said she, "you are irresistible." "Enough," exclaimed Alexander, "I desire no other response."

Having completed his preparations and made Antipater governor in his absence, Alexander started for the East in 334 B. C. With an army small in numbers but invincible in spirit, he fearlessly marched into the Persian Empire, and won his first great battle at the river Grani'cus. This victory secured the conquest of Asia Minor and the liberation of the Greek cities from their oppressors. Advancing to Gordium, Alexander severed the famous Gordian knot, respecting which an oracle had said that he who untied it would be master of Asia. Failing in his attempts to unravel it, he solved the problem with his sword, and in his subsequent career fulfilled the prophecy.

At length at Issus (see Map, p. 67) Alexander overthrew Dari'us III., the Persian king, 333 B. C. Among the trophies of victory were the treasures and family of Dari'us. Toward the royal captives Alexander displayed the greatest magnanimity, so winning upon the king's mother by his gracious and respectful treatment, that, on hearing

of his death ten years afterward, she veiled her head, refused food, and ended her life by starvation.

The next blows were aimed at Persia through her dependencies on the Mediterranean. Tyre resisted bravely, and Ga'za imitated her example—but in vain. The subjugation of Egypt followed that of Palestine; and the name of the conqueror was permanently connected with this part of his dominions by the founding of the city of Alexandria, which was made the capital of Egypt and soon became the greatest seat of commerce in the world.

Darius had improved the interval to raise a million efficient fighting men for the defence of his empire. Alexander hastened to meet them with his little army, and at Arbe'la (Map, p. 67) gained a complete victory (331 B. C.). The rich capitals of Persia now opened their gates to the Greeks, and the fugitive Darius was treacherously murdered by one of his satraps. Alexander wept on beholding his mutilated body, and buried him with royal honors. The traitor was afterward taken, and his fate shows the cruel punishments that were sometimes inflicted in those days. Two trees were bent toward each other, his limbs fastened to them respectively, and their recoil tore his body asunder.

Alexander now had himself proclaimed King of Asia, and proceeded to reduce the remoter provinces of Persia. A mountain-fortress on a steep rock surrounded with snow, for a time delayed his progress, its defenders when summoned to yield tauntingly asking whether he had winged soldiers. But no such obstacle could stay his triumphant course. Three hundred picked men, driving iron spikes into the ice-bound face of the rock and drawing themselves up with ropes, made the ascent under cover of the night; and at dawn the barbarians surrendered. Among the captives was the princess Roxa'na, "the Pearl of the East," who became the bride of Alexander.

CONQUESTS IN INDIA.—The insatiate conqueror next passed through what is now Afghanistan', crossed the Indus, and established Greek colonies and towns in the subjugated territories. One of these, built on the spot where his favorite horse was buried, he named Buceph'ala.

Po'rus, an Indian monarch of gigantic size and strength, mounted on his elephant, bravely disputed the march of the invaders. Being captured and brought before Alexander, he was asked what he desired. "To be treated as a king," he replied; and his request was granted.

DEATH AND CHARACTER OF ALEXANDER.—The mutiny of his troops alone prevented Alexander from pushing his arms into the remote East. He returned to Babylon, his intended capital, where he died suddenly, 323 B. C., from the effects of the unhealthy climate and his own excesses. He was buried in a golden coffin at Alexandria.

Thus perished prematurely this extraordinary chieftain, in the vigor of manhood and in the midst of ambitious plans. During his short reign of a dozen years, he made Macedonia mistress of half the world. Yet though lord of this immense empire, he was a slave to his own passions. He surrendered himself to dissipation, and in the heat of anger committed deeds that he remembered with bitter remorse. While intoxicated at a banquet, he even struck down his friend Cli'tus, who had saved his life in battle.

Occasionally, however, Alexander displayed unusual greatness of soul. It is told that a cup of water was once offered to him in the desert, but that though parched he poured it out in the sand lest his soldiers might feel their thirst more keenly by seeing their general alone refreshed. The Jews experienced his favor; and the high-priest explained to him the prophecy of Daniel relating to himself, in which he is described as a goat (see the tradition at the commencement of this chapter) coming from the West

and smiting the ram which had two horns—the king of Media and Persia.

Successors of Alexander.—For twenty years after the death of Alexander, sanguinary wars desolated his empire. His vast dominions were divided among his generals. They soon quarrelled; but finally the rest leagued together against Antig'onus, who aspired to the supremacy of the whole. In the battle of Ipsus, 301 B. C., Antigonus was defeated and slain, and his kingdom fell to the victors.

Lysimachus (*li-sim'a-kus*), already master of Thrace, appropriated as his share most of Asia Minor. Seleu'cus, whose Syrian Empire included all the countries between the Indus and the Euphrates, obtained additional territory west of the latter river. Egypt remained to Ptolemy (*tol'e-my*); and Macedon and Greece fell to Cassan'der, son of Antip'ater.

During these struggles the East had profited by its intercourse with the Greeks. Magnificent cities had arisen, the Greek language was widely spoken, and throughout western Asia and north-eastern Africa great advances were made in knowledge. The famous Muse'um of Alexandria, containing the greatest library of antiquity, was a monument of the enlightened munificence of the Ptolemies.—Greece, on the other hand, was weakened and debased by the influence of oriental luxury; art and literature deteriorated, and patriotism died.

Still gleams of the ancient spirit at times flashed forth. The Ætolian and the Achæan League were formed in the third century B. C., to resist the oppression of the Macedonian kings. Many cities joined the Achæans, and the league for a time wielded great power under the leadership of Ara'tus of Sicyon; at last, however, weakened by dissensions, it was broken up on the conquest of Greece by the Romans (page 115).

Literature and Art.—We have already mentioned De-

mosthenes, the greatest orator the world has ever seen. His twelve *Philippics*, directed against Philip of Macedon and full of forcible invective, are justly famous; but the finest specimen of his eloquence is the speech *Concerning the Crown*—a golden crown, which it was proposed to bestow on him as a reward for his public services.

By this oration he vanquished his rival Æschines (*es'ke-neez*), a very able orator, but strongly opposed to war with Philip. Æschines was driven into exile, and opened a school of oratory at Rhodes. Here on one occasion he read to his pupils his own oration on the Crown, and was loudly applauded; he then read that of Demosthenes, when his hearers rose to their feet and rent the air with acclamations. “Ah!” said the generous Æschines, “what would you have said, had you heard the wild beast himself roaring it out?”

The eloquence of Demosthenes was attained only after the most persevering labors. Weakness of voice he remedied by practising on the sea-shore amid the roar of ocean; a defect of speech he removed by declaiming with pebbles under his tongue; and, to escape being tempted from his studies into company, he shaved half of his head and sought retirement for months at a time in a subterranean apartment.

Ar'istotle of Stagi'ra (384–322 B. C.), the teacher of Alexander the Great, founded the school of philosophy called *Peripatetic* because he used to walk about (in Greek *peripatein*) while giving his instructions. This illustrious philosopher, whom Plato called the Intellect of his school, has exerted an influence on the minds of men that passes calculation. For twenty centuries his authority was paramount. He was the founder of logic and natural history, and wrote besides on physics, metaphysics, ethics, and politics.

Ze'no, who flourished 300 B. C., was the originator of

the Sto'ic sect, so called from the Painted Porch (*stoa*) at Athens, in which his disciples assembled. Zeno taught the strictest morality. Virtue was the supreme good, and was in itself happiness; pain was no evil; it was man's duty to subdue his passions and submit to the unalterable decrees of fate.

The Epicure'ans, or followers of Epicu'rus, made pleasure the chief good; while the Cynics (*sin'iks*), professing the most rigid virtue, severe in manners and mean



ALEXANDER THE GREAT AND DIOGENES.

in attire, snarled at everybody like dogs (*kunes*)—whence their name. The most celebrated Cynic was the eccentric Diogenes (*di-oj'e-nee-z*). He abode in a tub; and once, when basking in the sun, he was visited by Alexander the Great. Alexander asked the philosopher if he wanted anything. "I want you to get out of my sunshine," was the response. Admiring his independence, the Macedonian exclaimed, "If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes!"

In the third century B. C., Euclid, the father of mathematical science, flourished in Alexandria, and Archimedes (*ar-ke-me'deez*), of Syracuse, made wonderful discoveries and inventions in mechanics. Euclid, asked by one of the Ptolemies if there was not some easy way of learning mathematics, replied, "There is no royal road to geometry." Archimedes, filled with admiration of the power of the lever, whose properties he explained, cried, "Give me a place to stand on, and I will move the world."

Grecian art attained a high degree of perfection in the fourth century, under the painter Apel'les and the sculptors Lysip'pus and Praxit'eles. The success of Apelles was due to constant application; "no day without a line," was his maxim. Lysippus was distinguished for his works in bronze; and the statues of Venus by Praxiteles, combining feminine grace with intellectual dignity, have never been surpassed. Alexander the Great ordered that no one should paint him but Apelles, and none represent him in bronze except Lysippus.

To this century, also, belongs the stately Mausole'um, erected at Halicarnassus by Queen Artemisia, to the memory of her deceased husband Mausol'us. The entire edifice was adorned with magnificent sculptures.

Fourth Century, B. C.—Wars:—War between Persia and Sparta (399–394). Corinthian War (394–387). War between Sparta and Thebes (379–362). Social War (358–355). Sacred War (357–346). Philip's Wars in Thessaly (355–352). Philip's Wars with the Grecian States (343–337). Alexander's Career of Conquest (334–323). Wars among Alexander's successors (323–301).

ALEXANDER seems to have contemplated the organization of the world into one great empire under himself, with Babylon for its capital—the dominant races of the East and West to be bound together by intermarriage, education, commercial intercourse, and the transplanting of communities from one country to another:—a grand scheme of one of the foremost men of the ancient world.

CHAPTER XIV.

REPUBLICAN ROME, TO THE FIRST PUNIC WAR.

(509-264 B. C.)

Tyranny of the Patricians.—On the abolition of monarchy in Rome, B. C. 509 (see page 60), a republican constitution was adopted. The government was intrusted to two *Consuls*, chosen annually; while the senate, enlarged by the addition of new members (*conscripti*), gradually acquired increased influence in the state.

As long as they feared the restoration of Tarquin, the patricians willingly made concessions to the commons; but, when that danger was removed, they ruled with oppressive severity. The poor plebeians, from time to time reduced to penury by the plundering incursions of hostile tribes, were compelled to borrow from the richer citizens, who could use or sell them as slaves, or even put them to death, if they failed to pay their debts.

Secession of the Plebeians.—At last, driven to desperation by their sufferings, the plebeians resolved to endure the cruelty of the patricians no longer. Accordingly, in the year 494 B. C., they withdrew from Rome with the intention of founding another city on the Sacred Hill, in the vicinity. The nobles, however, seeing in this separation the ruin of the state, speedily acceded to the demands of the people. All those held for debt were liberated, and magistrates called *Trib'unes*, whose persons should be inviolate, were appointed to protect the commons from their oppressors.

Early Italian Wars.—While internal dissensions thus threatened the very existence of the Roman state, continual wars were waged with the surrounding nations. Immediately after the expulsion of the kings, a conspiracy was formed at Rome to restore Tarquin to his throne.

It was detected in time to save the young republic, and the consul Brutus was dismayed to find that his own two sons had participated in it. Painful as was the duty, he pronounced the sentence of death upon them, and with tearless eyes beheld them first scourged and then beheaded.

Disappointed in this attempt, Tarquin applied for aid to the Etruscans (see Map, p. 57), and persuaded Porsenna, king of Clusium (*klu'she-um*), to make common cause with him against Rome. Porsenna defeated the Roman army, and was about to cross the Tiber and occupy the city, when Horatius Cocles (*ho-ra'she-us ko'kleez*) took his post on the bridge, and with two brave companions faced the Etruscans. While the three held the opposing host in check, their countrymen hewed down the bridge. As the last timbers fell, Horatius, who a moment before had bade his comrades leave him, sprung into the river, and made his way across, unhurt by the hostile darts that rained about him.

Three hundred young Roman nobles now bound themselves by an oath, for their country's sake, to attempt in succession the life of Porsenna ; and Caius Mutius (*ka'yus mu'she-us*) was the first to cross the Tiber and enter the enemy's camp in fulfilment of the compact. By mistake he stabbed the royal scribe, and was at once apprehended. Porsenna's menaces of torture he treated with contempt, quietly thrusting his right hand into a camp-fire, and watching it burn to a crisp without a groan. Struck with this exhibition of fortitude, Porsenna set his prisoner free and soon after concluded a treaty with Rome. Thenceforth Mutius was known as Scævola (*sev'o-lă*), "the Left-handed."

The Latins were next induced to take up arms in behalf of Tarquin ; but with their defeat the hopes of the exiled family were finally overthrown. During this war a *Dictator* with absolute power was for the first time ap-

pointed by the Romans—a precedent which was afterward followed when extreme danger threatened the state.

Coriolanus.—A league was now made with the Latins; but wars continued with the Volsci (*vol'si*) and Æqui (*e'qui*), two nations of Oscan origin that repeatedly ravaged the territories of Rome and Latium (*lu'she-um*).

On one occasion, the Volsci came sweeping all before them, almost to the very walls of Rome, led by Coriolanus, a distinguished patrician general, who, banished by the people from his native city, had taken refuge among them. In vain the senate supplicated for peace; the vindictive Coriolanus would make no terms, until a train of noble ladies with his wife and mother at their head approached the Volscian camp. Against their tears and entreaties he could not remain proof, and exclaiming, "Mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son!" he bade them farewell and withdrew the hostile army. One account makes him to have been put to death by the disappointed Volsci; another, to have lived to old age in obscurity and exile.

Cincinnatus, a patrician renowned for his integrity, rescued the Roman army from the Æqui (458 B. C.). The consul's forces having been surrounded in a narrow valley, Cincinnatus was made dictator. He received the message of the senate, informing him of his appointment, while at work on his farm; when, hastening to the city, he raised a new army, surrounded the enemy in turn, took them prisoners, and compelled them to pass in disgrace beneath the yoke*—all this in twenty-four hours. Cincinnatus then entered Rome in triumph, was rewarded with a golden crown, and resigning the dictatorship returned to his humble farm.

The Decemvirate.—After many years of violent con-

* The Romans compelled their captives to pass under what they called "the yoke;" which consisted of two erect spears, supporting a third at such a height that he who went beneath was obliged to stoop.

tentions between the two orders, a board of ten magistrates, distinguished as *Decem'virs*, was instituted (451 B. C.), to digest the laws into a written code. They were endowed with supreme power, and for the time took the place of all other officers. Their administration was satisfactory; and at the close of the first term, the code being not yet finished, a new set of decemvirs was elected.

But the second decemvirate, under the ascendancy of Appius Claudius (449 B. C.), became an odious tyranny. A gross act of injustice led to its overthrow. When Appius, to obtain possession of a fair Roman maiden, adjudged her as a slave to one of his creatures, her father Virginius, to save her from dishonor, sheathed his knife in her bosom, crying, "This is the only way, my child, to keep thee free!" Then rushing from the forum* to the camp, he roused the soldiers to revolt.

A tumult meanwhile broke out in the city, and the decemvirs were obliged to flee. The plebeians next retired in a body to the Sacred Hill, and the dissolution of the state was again imminent. On the abdication of the decemvirs, however, the commons returned, and the tribunate and consulship were restored. Appius Claudius put an end to his own life; but the code of the decemvirs, known as "the Laws of the Twelve Tables," remained in force for many generations.

It was not long before plebeians and patricians were allowed by law to intermarry, and the office of "military tribune with consular power," which could be held by either commoner or noble, was substituted for the consulship. In 443 B. C., *Censors* were first elected; their duty was to take the census, manage the finances, and guard the public morals from corrupting influences. The censorship was regarded as the highest dignity in the state.

* The forum was an uncovered place set apart for the administration of justice and the meeting of the popular assembly. It contained the *rostra*, or stage from which orators addressed the people.

The warlike energies of the Romans continued to be developed by contests with their predatory neighbors. Veii (*ve'yi*), a splendid city of the Etruscans, withstood them for ten years, but finally had to yield to the strategy of Camillus (396 B. C.). This skillful general was afterward charged with embezzling a portion of the plunder,



GROUP OF ANCIENT GAULS.

and went into exile. At the gates of Rome, he called upon the gods to visit his country with such calamities as would necessitate his recall.

The Gallic Invasion.—At this very time hordes of Gauls, a fierce Celtic race, under their chief Brennus, were ravaging northern and central Italy. Soon after, they crossed

the Tiber, poured down its valley through the country of the Sabines, defeated a Roman army that had been sent against them, and took and burned the city. A brave garrison, however, for several months defended the capitol. The besiegers scaled the hill in a night attack. But a flock of geese, which the starving soldiers had spared because they were sacred to Juno, gave the alarm to Marcus Manlius by their cackling, and the capitol was saved.

The enemy finally agreed to raise the siege for a thousand pounds of gold, and then tried to extort more than the amount by using false weights at settlement. Brennus would listen to no remonstrance, but threateningly cast his sword also into the scale, exclaiming, "Woe to the vanquished!"

Before the payment was completed, Camillus, who had been recalled and again made dictator, appeared at the head of an army. "With iron," he cried, "not with gold, Rome buys her freedom!" and straightway fell upon the Gauls, and put them to a disastrous rout. Some doubt this story, and make Brennus to have escaped with the ransom.

Rome was quickly rebuilt. The neighboring states, however, availed themselves of her apparent helplessness to renew their attacks, while the commons, impoverished by their losses in the late invasion, were again made to feel the tyranny of the nobles. The genius of Camillus at this critical juncture saved the republic; and Manlius, who declared that no one should be enslaved for debt so long as he had a pound of brass, won the title of Father of the Commons by his generous deeds.

The Licinian laws, passed 366 B. C., did much to relieve the existing distress. Lands out of the public domain were granted to the poor; and the consulship was restored, with the provision that one of the two chief magistrates should be a plebeian.

Conquest of Italy.—Up to this time Rome had been but one of several states occupying the peninsula; we now come to the period when she absorbed the rest.

Accepting the offer of the Campanians to become her subject-allies if she would protect them against the Samnites, Rome began hostilities with the latter people, 340 B. C. Samnium was a formidable rival, and the struggle for supremacy continued for half a century. The Samnites defeated the Roman army at the Caudine Forks (319 B. C.), but their power was finally broken in the decisive battle of Senti'num (see Map, p. 57). In 290 B. C. the consul Curius Dentatus invaded their country, and completed their subjection.

The Samnites had in vain attempted to buy Dentatus over to their cause. Their messengers, on arriving, found him seated on a rude bench eating out of a wooden bowl. He scornfully rejected their offered bribe, saying that a man content to live as he did, had no need of gold.

Meanwhile the Latins and their allies were overthrown in the battle of Mt. Vesuvius (337 B. C.). It was during this contest that the consul Manlius Torqua'tus ordered his son to be beheaded for engaging with the enemy, though successfully, in violation of his orders.

The Gauls and Etruscans were afterward subdued; nor were the Roman arms less fortunate in Magna Græcia. A pretext was soon found for declaring war against the Greek city of Tarentum. Feeling themselves no match for Rome,* the Tarentines summoned Pyr'rhus, king of Epi'rus (see Map of Greece, p. 40), to their aid.

War with Pyrrhus.—In 280 B. C., Pyrrhus appeared in

* Several of the cities of Magna Græcia were noted for their luxury and effeminacy. The Tarentines are said to have had more festivals than there were days in the year; at Syb'aris, it was unlawful to keep a cock or to pursue any trade which was accompanied with noise, lest the slumbers of the people might be disturbed.

Italy. He brought with him elephants trained for war, the unwonted sight of which threw the Roman cavalry into confusion and won for him two hard-fought battles. Victories, however, that cost him so many men, he foresaw would be fatal. As he surveyed the scene of carnage after his first triumph, and beheld the stalwart forms of the dead Romans, with their resolute features and not a single wound behind, his appreciation of their valor burst forth in the words, "Had I such soldiers, how easily could I become master of the world !"

In a third battle, the Romans under Curius Dentatus attacked the elephants with fire-brands, and badly defeated the king, who speedily withdrew from Italy.

Pyrrhus could not help admiring the simple manners and blunt honesty of the Romans. On one occasion he sought to gain over Fabricius (*fa-brish'e-us*), who had been sent as a messenger from the senate, by offering him more gold than Rome had ever seen. "Poverty with an honest name," replied Fabricius, "is more to be desired than wealth."

When the physician of Pyrrhus afterward proposed to Fabricius, then consul, to poison his master, the indignant Roman sent him back in irons, and Pyrrhus out of gratitude set free his prisoners. "It were as easy to turn the sun from his course," he exclaimed, "as Fabricius from the path of honor."

This same Fabricius is memorable for his extreme frugality, and when censor removed from office a senator because he possessed ten pounds of silver plate. Another distinguished Roman of the day was Appius Claudius the Blind. To him Rome owes its first great aqueduct, as well as the famous Appian Way—the *queen of Roman roads*—leading from that city to Capua (see Map, p. 112), a distance of 125 miles.

Shortly after Pyrrhus embarked, Tarentum submitted ;

and in the year 265 B. C. Rome was the mistress of all Italy.

300 B. C.—Rome absorbing the other Italian states; plebeians enjoying equal rights with patricians. Carthage rising in importance, but disturbed by factions. Population of Athens :—free, about 125,000; slaves, about 400,000. Macedonia under Cassander. Seleucus at the head of the Syrian Empire. Ptolemy So'ter king of Egypt; Alexandria, his capital, a great seat of learning. Jews under Ptolemy, and transplanted in great numbers to Egypt. The high-priest, Simon the Just, completes the canon of the Old Testament.



CHAPTER XV.

THE PUNIC WARS.

(264-146 B. C.)

Carthage is supposed to have been founded in the ninth century B. C.; when Dido, flying from her cruel brother Pygma'lon, led a party from Tyre in quest of new abodes. This little settlement was the germ of a great commercial nation. The Carthaginians, or Pœni* (*pe'ni*), gradually extended their authority over the neighboring tribes, and also over other Phœnician communities on the African coast. They soon got together a powerful navy, and by the end of the sixth century B. C. their empire comprised dependencies in Africa as far west as the Pillars of Hercules, part of Sicily, colonies in Spain, the Bal-e-ar'ic Isles, Corsica, Sardinia, and many smaller islands.

The government of the Carthaginians was republican; their religion, idolatrous, like that of their forefathers, the ancient Canaanites. They worshipped the sun, as the

* Whence the adjective *Punic*, equivalent to *Carthaginian*.

first principle of Nature, under the name of Ba'al or Moloch (*mo'lok*), and offered human sacrifices.

Sicilian Struggles.—In Sicily the Poeni were brought into collision with the Greek colonies, and for more than two centuries contended with them for the possession of this rich island. Dionysius (*di-o-nish'e-us*), the Tyrant of Syracuse (405–367 B. C.), gained some brilliant victories over the Carthaginians, but was unable to expel them from Sicily.

With a taste for literature which made him a patron of poets and philosophers, this prince was withal suspicious and vindictive. One of his prisons, called the Ear of Dionysius, was a whispering-gallery so constructed that by stationing himself at a particular point he could overhear the unguarded words of those confined.

The lesson he taught Dam'ocles is often referred to. This flatterer, having expressed his admiration of the luxury and pomp of royalty and accepted the invitation of the tyrant to try it for a time, was placed on a purple couch, surrounded with every thing that could please the senses, and served with an exquisite banquet. Damocles was at the summit of happiness; till, on casting his eyes upward to the fretted ceiling, he discovered a sword suspended over his head by a single hair. His pleasure was now at an end. "Such," said Dionysius, "is the happiness of kings, threatened by constantly impending dangers."

After the death of Dionysius, the struggle with the Carthaginians was continued, but without any decisive result.

First Punic War.—A collision between the growing power of Rome, now extended over all Italy, and Carthage, the mistress of the Mediterranean, was inevitable. It had been foreseen by the sagacious Pyrrhus, who had found time during his Italian campaign to cross to Sicily and

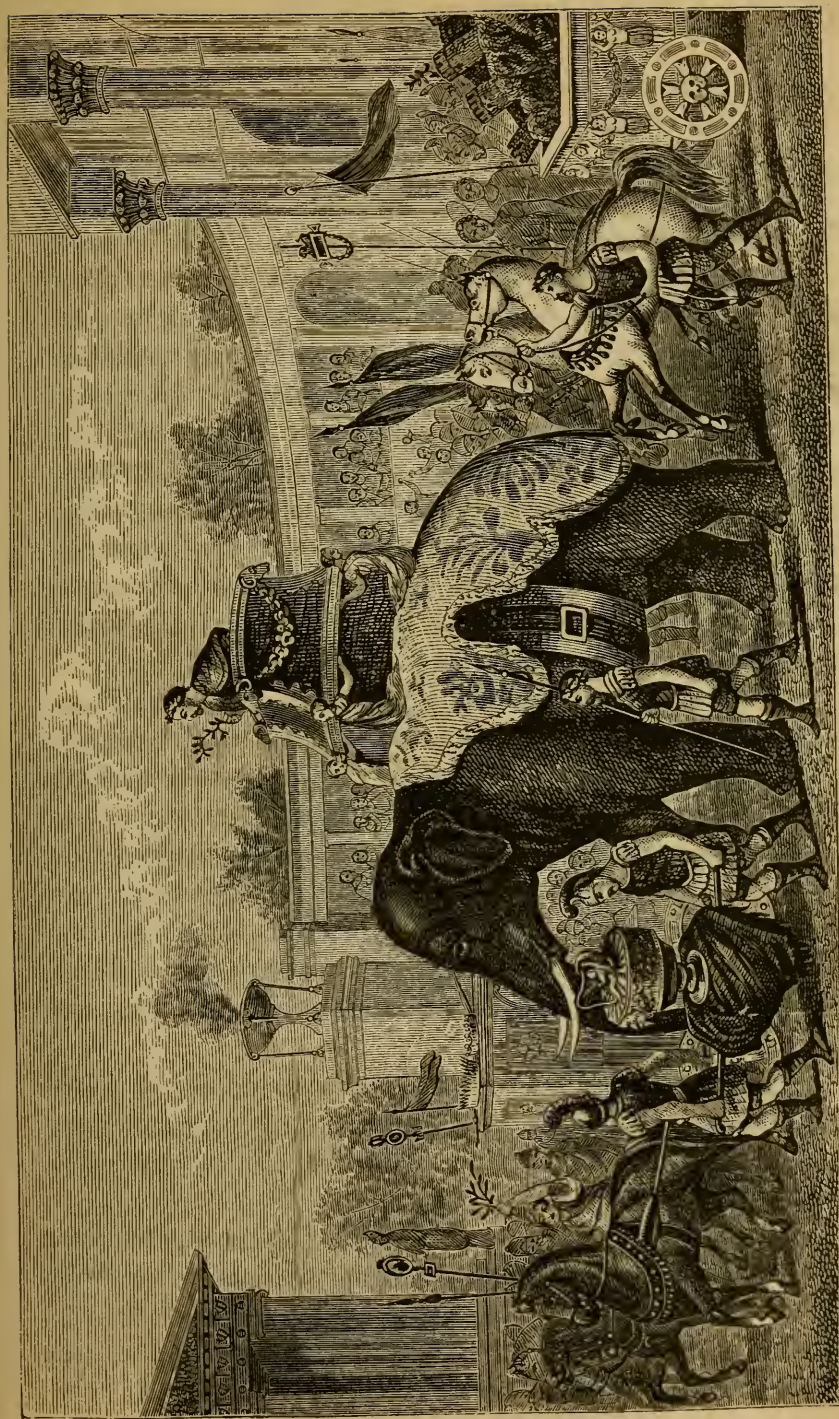
despoil many of the Punic towns. "What a fine battle-field," he exclaimed on re-embarking, "are we leaving to the Carthaginians and Romans!"

Hostilities were precipitated by the course of events. The Mamertines, a band of Campanian adventurers, having taken possession of Messana and massacred the male inhabitants, the Carthaginians and Syracusans laid aside their animosity to unite against them. The Mamertines appealed to the Romans for protection, claiming to be descended like them from Mars (*Mamers*); an assembly of the people voted to aid them, and an army was sent into Sicily. The Romans were generally successful, and Hi'ero, the Syracusan king, was soon glad to make peace.

BIRTH OF ROMAN NAVAL POWER.—The Carthaginians, however, were still masters of the sea; and the Romans, to protect their maritime towns, found it necessary to prepare a naval force without delay. Patterning after a Punic vessel wrecked upon their coast, in a few weeks they had constructed a hundred war-ships furnished with bridges for boarding, and had made efficient crews out of landsmen who perhaps had never before handled an oar—a feat unparalleled in history. This squadron closed with the Carthaginian fleet, and took or sunk nearly a hundred vessels (260 B. C.). The consul Duil'lius, who commanded it, was honored with the first naval triumph* at Rome.

REGULUS.—Another successful action on the sea encouraged the Romans to invade the Carthaginian dominions in Africa with a powerful armament (256 B. C.). The flourishing country, covered with villas and rich olive-groves, was overrun and pillaged, and one of the consuls

* A triumph was the greatest military honor that could be conferred on a victorious commander. It consisted of a procession, in which appeared the conqueror clad in purple, accompanied by his army decked with laurel and bearing the spoils taken from the foe.



A ROMAN TRIUMPH.

returned to Rome with the spoils. His colleague Reg'ulus remained to conduct the war ; but after taking some two hundred places, among them Tu'nis, he was defeated and made prisoner by a Spartan general whom the enemy had placed at the head of their troops.

After several years of captivity Regulus was sent to Rome, to effect an exchange of prisoners and propose peace. He was first required to swear that he would return if unsuccessful; but on appearing before the Roman senate, instead of advocating peace, he represented the exhausted state of the enemy, and induced his countrymen to decline the overtures of Carthage. Disregarding the tears of his family and the entreaties of his friends, he then went back to meet the fate which he knew was in store for him, and soon after, if we may believe the story, perished under exquisite tortures.

The First Punic War continued until 241 B. C., when, after being again vanquished at sea, the Carthaginians yielded to the severe terms of the Romans—agreeing to pay, in silver talents, about \$2,500,000, and to give up Sicily. The western part of this island was annexed to the Roman republic as its first province, but Syracuse was allowed to retain its independence. A most flourishing period in the history of that city followed ; while at Rome the temple of Janus was closed for the first time since the days of King Numa.

Illyrian and Gallic Wars.—The commerce of the Adriatic and the neighboring waters had long suffered from the depredations of Illyr'ian corsairs. These were destroyed by the Roman fleet, 229 B. C.

A few years later, a formidable Gallic inroad was checked with great slaughter, and the territory of the invaders overrun in turn to the foot of the Alps (222 B. C.). The tract thus conquered became the province of Cisalpine Gaul (*Gaul on this side of the Alps*), and was con-

nected with the capital by the Flaminian Way, a road built by Flamin'ius the censor.

Second Punic War.—During this interval, Carthage was gathering fresh strength to resume her quarrel with Rome. The possessions she had lost were counterbalanced by new conquests in Spain. Here towns sprung up, commerce flourished, and silver from the rich mines of Carthage'na (then Cartha'go Nova, *New Carthage*) flowed into the home treasury. The Spanish princes sought alliance with the new-comers, and their undisciplined subjects were trained to war by experienced officers.

Such was the improved condition of Carthage when Hannibal became commander-in-chief of her armies (220 B. C.). This prince in his boyhood had been led to the altar of Baal by his father Hamil'car, and there sworn to cherish undying enmity to Rome. In accordance with his vow, Hannibal now fell upon Saguntum, a city which had for years been allied to Rome (Map, p. 112), and thus precipitated hostilities with the hated republic.

At the head of a veteran army, he next set out for the invasion of Italy, crossed the Rhone in the face of a hostile tribe, and led his troops and elephants through the snows of the Alps down into the country of the friendly Gauls (218 B. C.). After recruiting his exhausted soldiers, he twice routed the Roman armies, and established his supremacy in northern Italy. The following year, the consul Flamin'ius was defeated and killed in an engagement fought with such fury that an earthquake which took place while it was going on was utterly unobserved.

Rome was now saved by the prudence of Fa'bius, who was made dictator. Giving no opportunity for a decisive battle, but watching every movement of his enemies, cutting off their supplies and wearing them out by the necessity of constant vigilance, he won for himself the reproachful title of *Cunctator*, or *Delayer*, but gained for

ATLANTIC OCEAN



his countrymen the time needed for fitting out new armaments.

CANNÆ. — On the expiration of the term of Fabius, the command fell into other hands, and in 216 B. C. occurred the great disaster of Cannæ which cost the Romans nearly 80,000 men. Thousands of rings gathered from the hands of nobles who lay dead upon the field were sent as trophies to Carthage.

The road now lay open to Rome. "Let me advance instantly with the horse," urged the commander of the cavalry, "and in four days thou shalt sup in the capitol." Hannibal refused. "Alas!" said the disappointed officer, "thou knowest how to gain a victory, but not how to use one."

After the battle of Cannæ, Hannibal withdrew his army to wealthy Cap'ua, which opened its gates without resistance. Southern Italy generally declared for the victor, and Macedon and Syracuse also joined the Carthaginians. But Rome still refused to treat, and maintained the war not only in Italy but also in Spain. Macedon was kept busy in Greece, and Marcellus laid siege to Syracuse.

SIEGE OF SYRACUSE. — For months this famous city, which had baffled both Athens and Carthage, was successfully defended by the genius of Archimedes. He contrived stupendous engines which discharged masses of stone, and huge iron grapples that seized the Roman ships when they approached the walls, raised them in the air, and dashed them into the water. He is also said to have set fire to the hostile fleet by means of mirrors, and so terrified the Romans with his machines that at the sight of a rope or stick on the walls they fled in dismay.

At length the watchfulness of the Syracusans relaxed during a festival of Diana, and the city fell into the hands of Marcellus (212 B. C.). During the sack that followed, Archimedes was engaged in study, when a Roman soldier

rushed upon him and bade him follow to Marcellus. "Wait," said the philosopher, "till I have finished this problem;" whereupon the soldier, incensed at his delay, drew his sword and killed him.

CLOSE OF THE WAR.—Meantime their luxurious city quarters were enervating the soldiers of Hannibal, while Rome, straining every nerve for the struggle, was rapidly gaining ground. A Roman army finally threatened Capua, and Hannibal made reprisals by an attempt on Rome. His Numidian horse swept up to the very walls, and he himself is said to have thrown a javelin into the city. But while he thus gained no solid advantage, his army was gradually melting away, and his only hope lay in receiving reinforcements from Spain.

Here his brother Has'drubal had defeated and killed two Roman generals. The arrival of Publius Cornelius Scipio (*sip'e-o*), however, quickly changed the aspect of affairs; and by the year 206 B. C., the Carthaginian power in Spain was destroyed. Before this Hasdrubal had left to join Hannibal with his army, and Rome was threatened from both north and south.

But the junction was never effected; for Hasdrubal's army was cut to pieces, and its leader slain. His disfigured head, flung into the camp, was brought to Hannibal, who cried on beholding it, "Ah! Carthage, I see thy doom."

Somewhat later the Romans sent an army into Africa, and Hannibal (after an absence of nineteen years, fifteen of which were occupied by his campaigns in Italy) was recalled to defend his country from Scipio; but without success. The battle of Zama (202 B. C.) annihilated the last hope of Carthage, and forced her to submit to a disgraceful peace. Thus ended the Second Punic War. In honor of his great victories, Scipio was surnamed *Africinus*; and Hannibal, who is justly ranked among the great captains of antiquity, to escape falling into the power

of Rome, finally took poison, which he always carried about his person.

Macedonian and Syrian Wars.—Macedon's siding with Carthage in this struggle led to a war with Rome, in which the Macedonians were vanquished on the field of Cyn-os-ceph'a-læ (*Dogsheads*—the name of a ridge of low hills in Thessaly), 197 B. C. The superiority of the Roman legion over the unwieldy Macedonian phalanx, by reason of its greater quickness of movement, was here clearly proved.

Next followed a war with Anti'o-chus the Great of Syria, which resulted in his overthrow at Magnesia in Lydia (see Map, p. 40), 190 B. C. From the spoils of this war the Romans were enabled to bestow magnificent rewards on their allies, the Rhodians and the king of Per'-gamus.

Pergamus was a little kingdom of western Asia, which arose after the dismemberment of Alexander's empire. Its capital rivalled Alexandria in the encouragement of art and literature, and also with its famous library of 200,000 volumes. In 133 B. C. Pergamus was bequeathed to the Roman people by its king At'talus III., and it was made a province under the name of Asia.

Conquest of Greece.—In 179 B. C. the throne of Macedon fell to Per'seus, who burned to revenge the humiliation of his country. Rome penetrated his designs, war was declared, and in the battle of Pyd'na (168 B. C.) the consul Paulus Æmilius effected the destruction of the Macedonian army. Rome now became the arbitress of the civilized world.

The Achæan League was subsequently overthrown in a brief war; and the capture of Corinth by the consul Mummius (146 B. C.) completed the conquest of Greece. Macedonia and Greece became Roman provinces, the latter under the name of Achaia (*a-ka'ya*).

Third Punic War.—The same year that saw the fall of

Corinth witnessed also the demolition of Carthage. As this city began to recover something of its former prosperity, the jealousy of the Romans revived. Moved by the constant denunciations of Cato the Censor, who never rose to speak or vote on any subject without adding the words, "I also think that Carthage should be destroyed," they required the Carthaginians to level their capital to the dust and abandon its very site.

This was too much even for a conquered people ; they preferred a hopeless resistance. All classes labored incessantly to strengthen the fortifications of the city ; prisoners were set free, and their chains forged into weapons ; statues, vases—even gold and silver, were melted down for the same purpose ; and the women braided their flowing locks into bow-strings for their defenders.

Despite these efforts, Scipio, the Younger Africa'nus, took the city, and burned it to the ground. Its territories were converted into the province of Africa. As he looked upon the ruins of this once rich and powerful metropolis, Scipio burst into tears, and exclaimed, "This may hereafter be the fate of Rome."

Jewish History.—During the period of the Punic Wars, the Jews suffered from the tyranny of the Syrian kings. In the year 170 B. C. Jerusalem was pillaged, and the second Temple plundered of its sacred treasures. The sanctuary was afterward profaned with sacrifices to Jupiter.

Deliverers were found in the heroic Mattathi'as and his son Judas, who founded the Maccabe'an line. The Maccabee princes restored the independence of Jude'a and largely extended its boundaries.

Roman Literature.—While Rome was gaining immortality by her victories, we find her also advancing in the field of literature. During the last century of battles and conquests flourished the dramatic poet Liv'ius Andronicus (240 B. C.) ; Nævius (*ne've-us*), who treated of the First

Punic War in verse, and to his cost satirized the nobility in his comedies; Ennius, "the father of Latin song;" and the comic poets Plautus and Terence.

After the fall of Corinth grammarians and philosophers flocked to Rome from Achaia, a taste for Greek culture prevailed, and the young patricians were carefully instructed in the Greek language.

200 B. C.—Roman arms widely victorious. Carthage in humiliation after the battle of Zama. Egypt, fifty years before the chief maritime state, now fallen from its greatness. Antiochus the Great at the head of the Syrian Empire of the Seleucidæ (*se-lu'se-de*). The Jews under Antiochus. Attalus I. king of Pergamus. Kingdom of Parthia, formed 256 B. C. by a revolted province of the Syrian Empire, rising to power.

CHAPTER XVI.

GOLDEN AGE OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC.

War in Spain.—The conquest of the Spanish peninsula was by no means completed with the expulsion of the Carthaginians. Not only was a guerrilla warfare maintained by the freedom-loving natives under the Lusita'nian chief Viria'thus and other leaders, but Numantia, a town of the Celtibe'ri, successfully resisted the Roman arms till Scipio Africanus the Younger was sent into Spain.

He invested Numantia, and the inhabitants, reduced to starvation by more than a year of siege, slew their wives and children, fired their city, and perished in the flames (133 B. C.).

Degeneracy of Manners.—As Rome extended her power, the manners of the people became corrupted by intercourse with the conquered nations. Grecian luxury gradually took the place of that stern virtue and honest poverty

which had elevated the old Roman character. Riches flowed into Italy, and with them came extravagance and effeminacy. Contrast the expensive feasts of the Romans in this age with the frugal meals of the early patricians; or Brutus, tearless at the execution of his children, with a senator who wept at the death of a favorite fish!

Cato, firm in his attachment to the ancient morals and simplicity, in vain tried to stem the current. Vice of every sort by degrees gained a foothold in Rome. As a result of the many wars, slaves multiplied to an alarming extent. Numbers of these were trained as gladiators. Others cultivated the public lands; while the poor Roman freeman, since the Licinian law was no longer enforced, could scarcely make a living.

Reforms of the Gracchi.—Moved by the distress that prevailed among the lower classes, Tiberius Gracchus, tribune of the commons, proposed a law for the equitable division of the public domain among the poor, and the employment of freemen instead of slaves in the cultivation of the soil. His measures, after great opposition, were passed (133 B. C.). But, on his following these with other obnoxious propositions, he was assaulted and killed by the nobles.

The fate of his elder brother Tiberius did not prevent Caius Gracchus from pursuing a similar course in the interest of the people, when in 123 B. C. he was chosen tribune. But the nobles, again resorting to violence, put down his followers by force; and Caius, to escape them, bade an attendant plunge a dagger into his breast (121 B. C.).

Tiberius and Caius were the sons of Cornelia, the daughter of Scipio Africanus, to whose memory a statue was raised by the Romans, inscribed with the words, "The Mother of the Gracchi."

Jugurthine War.—In the midst of the extreme political corruption which followed the death of Caius Gracchus,

war broke out with Jugurtha. This prince had taken violent possession of all Numidia, on the northern coast of Africa (see Map, p. 112), after causing the death of two kinsmen, to whom portions of the kingdom rightfully belonged. For a time he secured impunity by buying up prominent men, whose readiness to accept his gold led him to exclaim of Rome, "Ah! venal city, and destined quickly to perish if it can but find a purchaser!"

At length the war was vigorously conducted by the consul Metellus, and was brought to an end by Caius Marius. Jugurtha was carried to Rome in chains, and with a death by starvation paid the penalty of his crimes.

Marius, a soldier of humble birth, had won the esteem of Scipio in the Numantine War. Asked on one occasion where the Romans would find so great a general when he was dead, Scipio placed his hand on the shoulder of Marius, and said, "Perhaps here."

Teutones and Cimbri.—While the Romans were prosecuting the war in Numidia, the Teu'tones and Cimbri, from the forests of northern Europe, descended in hordes upon the provinces. Several armies were cut to pieces by these fierce barbarians, whose gigantic stature and savage valor struck terror even into the Romans. At last Italy itself was threatened with invasion, 105 B. C., and affrighted Rome looked to the conqueror of Jugurtha as the only man who could save the state.

Marius was accordingly made consul. In two battles he overthrew with great slaughter, first the Teutones, and then the Cimbri, who were drawn up in a body nearly three miles square. By these victories he acquired great influence, and in 100 B. C. he was elected consul for the sixth time.

Civil War of Marius and Sylla.—Rome was now on the eve of a severe struggle with Mithridates the Great, king of Pontus, next to Hannibal the most formidable adversary

she ever encountered. This monarch made himself master of all Asia Minor, defeated the armies of the republic that were sent against him, and (B. C. 88) instigated, or at least allowed, the massacre in one day of 80,000 Roman residents in the towns of Asia.

At this juncture the conduct of the Mithridatic War was given by the senate to Sylla, the favorite of the aristocratic party, as Marius was of the people. Indignant at the elevation of his rival, Marius endeavored to wrest from him the command. Sylla, however, led his legions into the capital, defeated the Marian party in the streets, and drove the gray-haired "saviour of Italy" from the city.

Discovered near Minturnæ, Marius was thrown into a dungeon, and a Cimbrian slave sent to murder him. "Darest thou kill Caius Marius?" demanded the old Roman, confronting the assassin with determined mien; the Cimbrian quailed before the man who had destroyed his nation, dropped his weapon, and fled.

Soon after this Marius obtained his freedom and escaped to Africa; whence, after Sylla's departure for the East, he hastened back to Rome on the invitation of the consul Cinna. Together they entered the city with a force made up of the very dregs of Italy; for several days the houses were abandoned to pillage, and the streets were dyed with the noblest blood of the capital.

Marius now seized on the consulship. In his youth seven eaglets once dropped into his lap—an omen, as it was believed, that he would be seven times chief magistrate. The omen was thus verified. A few days afterward, worn out by excessive drinking and fear of Sylla's return, he died (86 B. C.).

Sylla's Return.—Sylla's career in the East was a series of victories. Athens, which had revolted to Mithridates, was taken by storm; Greece and Asia Minor were recov-

ered; and the king submitted to a humiliating peace. Sylla was thus left at liberty to return to Italy.

He lost no time in wreaking a bloody revenge. The friends of Marius and all attached to the democratic party were mercilessly slaughtered. The names of those condemned to death were entered on proscription-lists, and a reward was offered for their heads. The possession of property was a sufficient offence. "Alas!" exclaimed one who read his name among the doomed, "my villa is my destruction." Even whole states of Italy which had sided with Marius were depopulated, and the lands parcelled out among Sylla's partisans. The atrocities of Sylla and Marius cost the lives of 150,000 Roman citizens.

As perpetual dictator, Sylla next made various changes in the government favorable to the senate; but after three years' enjoyment of the office, he retired to a life of sensual indulgence. He died of a loathsome malady, 78 B. C., his last act illustrating his bloodthirsty disposition. Learning that one of his debtors delayed paying in the hope of being released from the obligation by his death, he had the man brought in and strangled before him.

Pompey the Great.—The successor of Sylla as head of the aristocratic party was Cneius (*ne'yus*) Pompey. In return for his services in crushing out the adherents of Marius in Sicily and Africa, he had been saluted by Sylla with the title of *Great*; but the dictator's jealousy had at first refused him a triumph. "The nation is more ready to worship the rising than the setting sun," said Pompey; and by his persistence he obtained the honor.

In 77 B. C. Pompey was sent by the senate into Spain, where Sertorius, a Marian leader of signal ability, had reared a powerful kingdom among the Lusitanians, and successfully defied the armies of Rome. The rude Spaniards believed that Sertorius was favored by the gods, for he persuaded them that a tame white fawn in his posses-

sion had been given him by Diana, and that it revealed to him important secrets from heaven.

Sertorius was at length slain by conspirators, and then Pompey was not long in reconquering Spain.

War of the Gladiators.—During Pompey's absence, a number of gladiators, led by the Thracian Spar'tacus, escaped from Capua, and joined by thousands of slaves and felons of the most dangerous class, filled Italy with the horrors of a servile war. After four Roman armies had been routed, Crassus, the richest patrician of his time, succeeded in scattering the insurgent force.

Five thousand escaped toward the Alps, but were dispersed by Pompey, who was returning from Spain. "Crassus has overcome the gladiators in a pitched battle," ran his boastful dispatch to the senate, "but I have plucked up the war by the roots."

Pompey's Eastern Conquests.—Pompey's next achievement was the destruction of the Mediterranean pirates; after which he obtained the command against Mithridates, who had renewed the war with Rome, 75 B. C. In two years the struggle was ended, and Mithridates, driven from his kingdom, put an end to his disappointments by suicide.

Syria and Palestine were next reduced; and on his return to Rome the conqueror was honored with the most magnificent triumph the city had ever seen.

Conspiracy of Catiline.—Meanwhile Rome had been saved by Cicero the consul from a formidable conspiracy. The leader of the plot was Catiline, one of Sylla's most depraved and dangerous creatures, who had imbrued his hands in the blood of his nearest kindred. Having gathered a band of youthful desperadoes burdened with debt, he proposed to fire the city, slaughter the leading men, seize the government, and plunder the treasury.

The plan was defeated by the wary measures of Cicero,

who exposed Catiline before the senate, and apprehended the principal conspirators. Catiline fled from the city, but was defeated and slain (62 B. C.); while Cicero was hailed as *the Father of his Country*.

First Triumvirate.—When Pompey returned from the East, he found prominent in the state three distinguished men: Cato, great-grandson of the old censor, firmly attached to liberty and justice; Cicero, who had attained distinction by his eloquence; and Julius Cæsar, whom Sylla had spared, though in him he beheld many Mariuses. Cæsar's ruling passion was ambition; once, when passing a wretched village, he remarked, "I would rather be first here than second at Rome."

Through Cæsar was formed the famous league called the First Triumvirate (*coalition of three men*) between himself, Pompey, and Crassus. The object of the triumvirs was to maintain their own power. Accordingly Cicero, whose opposition they feared, was banished; and Cato, chief of the senatorial party, was sent on a distant expedition. Cæsar secured the government of the two Gauls (Cisalpine and Transalpine) for five years, and afterward a continuance of his command for an equal time.

Conquests of Cæsar in Gaul and Britain.—In nine years (58–50 B. C.) Cæsar reduced to complete subjection the numerous Gallic tribes beyond the Alps (see Map, p. 124), and made the Germans also, across the Rhine, feel the weight of his conquering arm.

He found the Gauls a tall and fair-complexioned race, with blue eyes, and long, reddish hair. The nobles wore collars and bracelets of gold. It was the custom of the warriors to cut off the heads of the enemies they had slain, and embalm them as memorials of their valor, to be handed down through succeeding generations.

The Germans (*war-men*) were barbarians of unusual size and strength, inured to cold and hunger, dependent

on the chase and the produce of their flocks. They preferred death to servitude, and to survive the fall of their leader was an indelible disgrace. Women fought beside their husbands, beneath the sacred standards; and those who fell in battle were not only immortalized by the bards, but were believed to have a passport to eternal happiness.

Priestesses in white robes prophesied, and offered human victims to their gods.

In the years 55 and 54 B. C., Cæsar twice invaded Britain, which at this time appears to have been divided into petty states. He tells us that the chief authority in both political and religious affairs was exercised by priests called Druids, who ad-

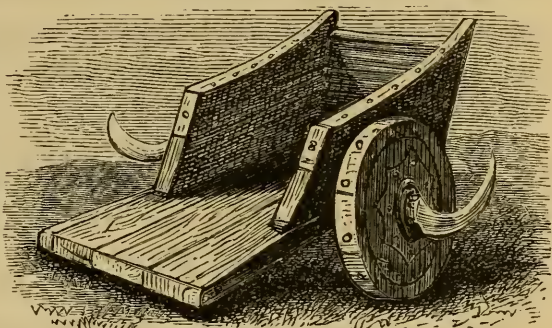


ministered justice, appointed the highest officers, and performed all public and private sacrifices. They regarded the oak as sacred, and held the mistletoe in special reverence.

The natives of Britain, though they resisted Cæsar's invasion with great bravery, shared the fate of their Gallic

neighbors ; and the southern portion of the island was nominally subjected to Rome.

Civil War of Cæsar and Pompey.—While Cæsar was winning glory by these victories in strange lands, Crassus was killed during a war with the Parthians, who had erected a powerful empire between the Euphrates and the Indus. The Parthian king filled his head with melted gold. “Sate thyself,” he exclaimed, “with the metal of which in life thou wast most greedy.” Pompey and Cæsar were thus left masters of the Roman world.



BRITISH SCYTHE-BEARING CHARIOT.

But there was not room for both. When Pompey persuaded the senate to deprive Cæsar of his military command, the latter at the head of his devoted legions crossed the Ru'bicon,* overran Italy, entered the capital, and assumed the office of dictator. Pompey, who had boasted that if he only stamped with his foot an army would start from the ground, fled without striking a blow. Not thus, however, did he give up the strife. With a large army collected in Thessaly, he met Cæsar on the plain of Pharsalia (see Map, p. 40), but suffered a total defeat (48 B. C.).

From this disastrous field Pompey escaped to Egypt,

* The Rubicon (see Map, p. 112) was a small river which formed the boundary of Cæsar's province ; by crossing it with an army, he virtually declared war against the government. Well may he have paused, as we are told he did, upon the brink. The current expression, *crossing the Rubicon*, therefore, is applied to the taking of a decisive step which commits one to a certain course.

only to be perfidiously murdered there as he was about to land. The ruling Ptolemy, although under obligations to him, was persuaded to commit this crime; for, said his counsellors, "if we receive him, we shall make Cæsar our enemy and Pompey our master." When, on the victor's arrival, the head of his former friend and son-in-law (Pompey had married Julia, Cæsar's daughter) was shown to him, he wept bitter tears, and directed that an honorable burial be given to the remains.

Having placed the beautiful Cleopa'tra on the throne of Egypt after a conflict in which Ptolemy was killed, Cæsar marched against the son of Mithridates. The speedy overthrow of this prince he announced in the brief sentence, "I came, I saw, I conquered."

The remnant of Pompey's adherents, which had rallied in Northern Africa, was next dispersed; and Cato, unwilling to survive the liberty of his country, stabbed himself at Utica. The generous Cæsar would have spared him. "I grudge thee thy death, O Cato!" he said, "as thou hast grudged me the saving of thy life."

Cæsar now became perpetual dictator. He knew that a republican government was no longer practicable in the factious atmosphere of Rome. The consummate general was no less sagacious a statesman, and his civil administration was marked by many salutary reforms. The calendar was improved by the introduction of an additional day every fourth year (leap-year), and from him our month of July received its name.

Murder of Cæsar.—The dictator's ambition at length provoked a plot against his life among the friends of liberty, with Brutus and Cassius at its head. It was on the Ides (15th) of March, 44 B. C., that the attack was made upon him in the senate-house. At first he resisted, and wounded one of his assailants; but when he saw a dagger in the hand of his friend Brutus, he cried, "Thou too, O

Brutus!" and covering his face with his mantle, fell at the foot of Pompey's statue, covered with wounds.

On the eve of his assassination, the question was raised at a social gathering 'what kind of death was the best?' "That," Cæsar promptly answered, "which is least expected." He had been repeatedly warned by the soothsayers "to beware of the Ides of March," and as he was going to the senate-house on the fatal day, he met one of them and smiled as he said, "The Ides of March are come." "Yes, Cæsar," the augur replied, "but not yet past."

Thus perished the greatest man that Rome, some say the world, ever produced, remarkable at once for wit, learning, eloquence, statesmanship, and military genius.

100 B. C.—Julius Cæsar born. Pompey and Cicero six years old. Marius the sixth time consul. Greece a Roman province. Mithridates the Great, head of a powerful kingdom in Asia Minor. The stern virtue and lofty purpose of the old Roman character giving way to profligacy and vice. Exactions and oppressions increasing in the provinces.



CHAPTER XVII.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE.

Second Triumvirate.—When Brutus plucked his dagger from Cæsar's body, he turned to Cicero and cried, "Rejoice, O father of our country! for Rome is free." But there was little cause for joy, unless it was to be found in the horrors of civil war. Mark Antony, the friend of the dictator, so inflamed the populace by his funeral oration over the corpse that Brutus and Cassius had to seek safety in flight.

Antony seized the opportunity to advance his own power, and was rapidly following in Cæsar's footsteps

when the youthful Octa'vius, grand-nephew and heir of Julius Cæsar, came forward to dispute with him the leadership of the people and the foremost place in the commonwealth. He courted the favor of all parties, and even secured the support of Cicero, whose famous "Philippic orations" drove Antony from Rome.

A reconciliation, however, was soon effected with Octavius; and they two, with Lep'idus, who had been an officer of Julius Cæsar, met on an island in a small river of northern Italy (43 B. C.) and formed the Second Triumvirate. The provinces and legions were partitioned among the triumvirs, and each agreed to sacrifice such of his friends and even kindred as were obnoxious to the others.

A reign of terror ensued; no house was safe from pillage, no age or rank escaped. Senators and knights were butchered, and among the rest the patriot Cicero fell a victim to the implacable Antony. His head was exposed in the streets of Rome, and Antony's inhuman wife pierced with her golden bodkin the tongue that had pronounced the eloquent Philippics.

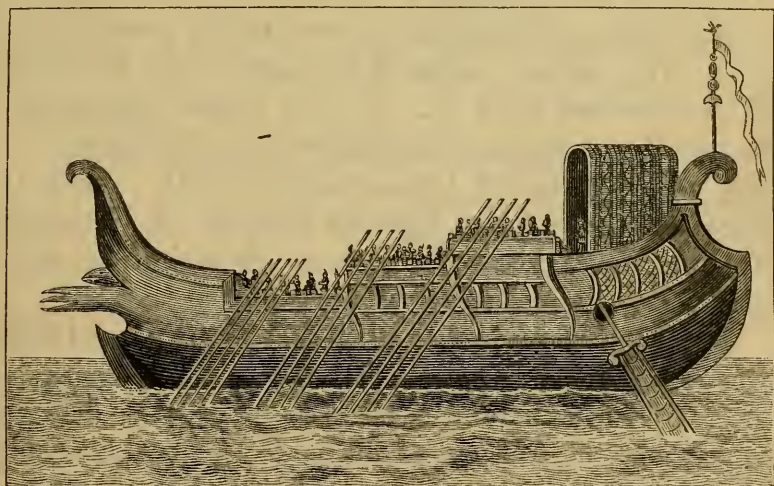
Philippi.—Secure at home, the triumvirs now moved against "the liberators," Brutus and Cassius, who had established themselves with a strong force in Thrace. Two engagements took place at Philippi (42 B. C.). In the first, Octavius was defeated by Brutus; but Antony routed the wing commanded by Cassius, who, believing the day was lost, committed suicide. Twenty days later Brutus himself was worsted, and found death by a friendly sword. Many patriots imitated his example; and his wife Porcia, the daughter of Cato, is said to have destroyed herself by holding burning coals in her mouth.

Pompey's son, who had been sweeping the Mediterranean with a fleet, was now crushed; Lepidus was removed from the Triumvirate, and in 36 B. C. the Roman world had but two masters.

Civil War of Octavius and Antony.—A desperate game was now to be played, with Rome for the stake. Octavius enjoyed the favor of the people, whom he had won by his liberality and the prestige of his victories. Antony, on the other hand, in his eastern provinces, had become notorious for reckless dissipation.

Bewitched by the charms of the fair but wicked Cleopatra, to which even the great Cæsar had yielded, he lost sight alike of his own honor and of the public interests, and plunged with her into all kinds of extravagance. She, striving to outdo him, on one occasion, at a banquet, dissolved in vinegar a rare pearl of inestimable value, and swallowed it before her astonished guest.

So reckless was the course of the infatuated Antony that hostilities could not long be deferred. Octavius took the field against him, and off Actium (*ak'she-un*) his fleet encountered the combined squadrons of Antony and Cleo-



ROMAN GALLEY.

patra. In the heat of the battle, the queen spread her purple sails in flight ; her fifty galleys followed ; and Antony, madly giving up every thing to his disgraceful pas-

sion, started after her, and left the empire of the world to his rival (31 B. C.).

The fugitives escaped to Alexandria, whither they were pursued by the conqueror. After a futile attempt to defend the city, Antony was driven to desperation by the defection of his fleet and army, and put an end to his life. Cleopatra was made captive; but, finding Octavius proof against her blandishments, and resolved not to be taken to Rome to grace his triumph, she applied an asp to her arm, and thus terminated her guilty career.

Augustus Cæsar.—Octavius now held undisputed sway. His dominion extended from the Atlantic Ocean and English Channel to the Euphrates, and from the Rhine, Danube, and Euxine on the north to the unexplored deserts of Africa on the south—having an average breadth of more than a thousand miles, and a length nearly three times as great.

Octavius was absolute; still he prudently disguised his assumption of supreme power under constitutional forms. The various offices of the state were continued, but he engrossed them all. He was consul, tribune, censor, pontifex maximus (superintendent of religious matters), and IMPERA'TOR (commander-in-chief). From the senate he received the dignified surname of *Augustus*; and it was decreed that the sixth month in the Roman calendar should thereafter be called *August* in his honor.

Augustus, thus firmly established as emperor though without the prestige of imperial forms, reigned with justice, to the satisfaction of all political parties. He was accessible to the meanest of his subjects. A soldier, having once asked the emperor to plead his cause, was referred to an advocate. "Ah!" cried the suppliant, "it was not by proxy that I served you at Actium." This was a home argument to which the emperor was obliged to yield.—On another occasion, Augustus said to a trem-

bling petitioner: "Friend, you appear as if you were approaching an elephant rather than a man; be bolder."

By such a course and many acts of clemency, the emperor won the love of the people. During his prosperous reign, the temple of Janus was closed three times. Commerce flourished. Rome, with its two millions of souls, was embellished with magnificent buildings, of which the Pantheon still survives as a striking representative. Augustus could truly say, "I left that a city of marble which I found a city of brick."

The public safety, no less at home than abroad, required a standing army, of which the Pretorian Guard, instituted for the protection of the emperor's person, formed an important part. But notwithstanding the efficient administration of military matters in general, Augustus, toward the close of his reign, met with a mortifying reverse in the overthrow of a powerful army under Va'rus, by Hermann, "the deliverer of Germany." So deeply did it affect him that he allowed his beard and hair to grow, and often cried out in anguish, "O Varus, give me back my legions!"

While absent from Rome on a journey, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, Augustus felt his end approaching. He called his friends to his bedside and said, "If I have played well my part in life, give me your applause." Then falling back into the arms of his wife, he expired (A. D. 14). Divine honors were paid to his memory.

Birth of Christ.—It was during the reign of Augustus, while an unusual repose pervaded the whole Roman world, that JESUS, "the Prince of Peace," was born at Bethlehem.

Her'od the Great, at this time king of Jude'a, had obtained the crown through the influence of Antony, and had strengthened his power by marrying Mariam'ne, the last princess of the Maccabe'an line. But Herod was a

monster of wickedness, and his own wife and two of his sons were successively put to death to satisfy his hatred and quiet his fears—which led the emperor Augustus to remark, “I would rather be Herod’s hog than his son.” He died of a loathsome disease, soon after the murder of the Innocents, related in the New Testament.

Golden Age of Roman Literature.—The emperor Augustus and his favorite minister Mæce’nas were liberal patrons of learning. A lustrous galaxy of writers illuminated their age, and the adjective *Augustan* has since been applied to the most flourishing period of a nation’s literature.

From many brilliant stars we may distinguish the following as those of the first magnitude: Virgil, Rome’s greatest poet, author of the *Æne’id*, a national epic,—the *Bucol’ics*, depicting shepherd-life,—and the *Georgics*, a didactic poem on rural economy; Horace, the master of lyric poetry, with his graceful Odes; Tibul’lus and Ov’id, elegi’ac poets; and Liv’y, the graphic historian, to whom we owe many of the charming legends which invest the early days of Rome with surpassing interest.

In the preceding period, Julius Cæsar wrote his *Commentaries*, and Sallust his *Jugurthine War* and *History of the Conspiracy of Catiline*. Cicero’s *Orations* and philosophical treatises have afforded a model of style to succeeding ages; “no greater master of composition and of the music of speech has ever appeared among men.”

Social Life.—The humble domiciles of the early Romans gave place in later times to splendid mansions,—the floors inlaid with stone or marble in mosaic, the walls and ceilings elaborately gilded and ornamented, the roofs terraced and covered with artificial gardens, the furniture glittering with tortoise-shell and ivory. Four millions of dollars was the estimated value of one of these princely villas that was burned.

The chief apartments were on the ground-floor, and access was had to them through the *a'trium*, or great entrance-room, in which the nobles ranged the images of their ancestors, hung the family portraits, and received their clients. The windows, at first mere openings with shutters, were in imperial times closed with glass obtained at great expense from the East. What little artificial heat was needed was supplied by braziers.

The Roman garments were made of wool, until the second century after Christ, when linen was introduced. Frequent bathing was necessary; the luxurious patricians of the empire sometimes visited their baths half a dozen times a day, and always just before dinner.

The dress consisted of tunics, or short under-garments with sleeves,—a *toga*, or loose robe, for the men, wrapped round the body in different ways at different periods, but so as to cover the left arm and leave the right at liberty,—and a *stola*, or kind of loose frock, for the women, fastened about the person with a double girdle, and having a long appendage trailing behind so as partially to cover the feet.

When a Roman was running for office, he marked his toga with chalk, and thus made it white, in Latin *candida*, whence our word *candidate*. Boys assumed the manly toga at about sixteen, before which they wore one with a broad purple hem. Mantles were used for out-door coverings, the ladies giving preference to the most brilliant colors. Hoods were worn on journeys; at other times the head was generally bare.

Three meals a day were taken, the chief of which was the *cœ'na*, eaten about three o'clock, and in later times served with great magnificence. The guests reclined around the table on couches spread with richly-embroidered coverings. The dinner consisted of various courses, beginning with light dishes as appetizers,—such as dormice

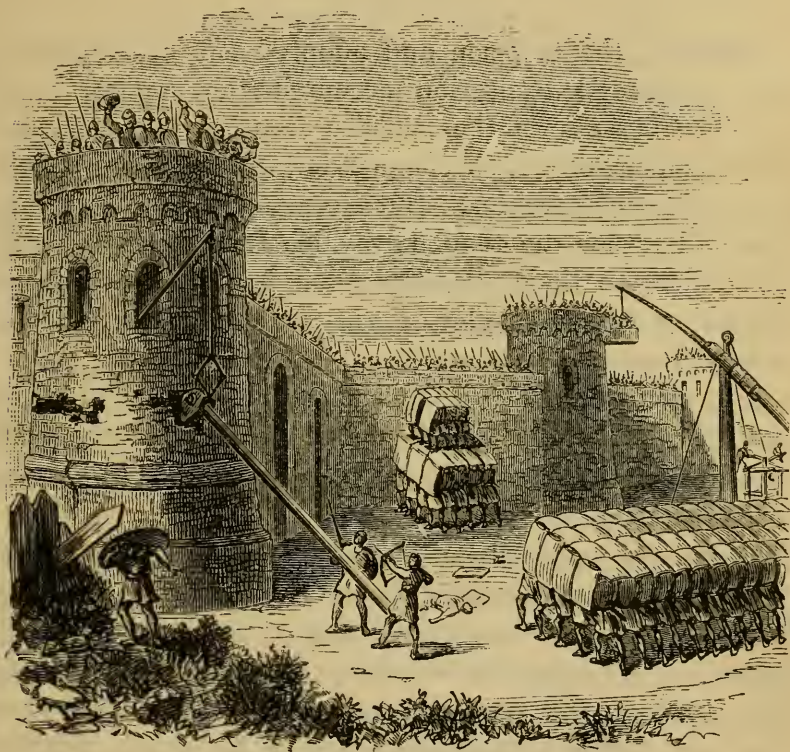
sprinkled with honey and poppy-seeds, fish, birds, olives, asparagus, etc. Next came the meats, and then the desert of fruits, pastry, and sweetmeats. Wine, pure or mixed with honey and water, was drunk at feasts by the guests crowned with chaplets.

The flesh of donkeys and young bears was in high repute. Pigs were slaughtered with red-hot spits that the blood might not be lost, and when cooked were sometimes stuffed with smaller animals flavored with asafoetida. Fowls were drowned in Falernian wine, to make them more luscious; and peacocks were among the costly luxuries. Peacocks' tongues were specially prized by epicures.

The principal amusements of the Romans were dramatic entertainments, and the games of the circus, consisting of chariot-races, wrestling and boxing matches, gladiatorial conflicts, etc. The gladiators were either condemned criminals, captives, slaves, or ruffians who pursued this vocation for hire. They were matched in the arena against each other, or with lions, tigers, leopards, and elephants. The victor, if a slave or captive, obtained his freedom; the vanquished was put to death, unless the people signified their wish to spare him by an upward movement of the thumb. Games would sometimes be exhibited by the emperors and wealthy Romans for weeks together, and thousands of beasts and gladiators would be killed, to the great delight of the first people of Rome, including even ladies of rank.

Military affairs engrossed much attention. A coat of mail, helmet, greaves, and shield, formed the defensive armor of the soldier; his weapons of offence were bow and sling, but particularly a sword and long heavy spear. Walls were attacked with engines that discharged darts and immense stones, and with the battering-ram, a long beam with an iron head, which was driven against the masonry by a body of men till a breach was made. In

approaching walls to undermine or scale them, the assailants protected themselves by joining their shields together so as to form a *testu'do* (tortoise), while the besieged plied



ROMANS ATTACKING A WALL.

them with arrows and javelins, hurled down great rocks on them, and tried to turn aside or grapple the ram.

CHRISTIAN ERA.—Universal peace. Imperial Rome, under Augustus, mistress of the world. Population of the empire about 120,000,000—60,000,000 slaves, 40,000,000 tributaries and freedmen, 20,000,000 enjoying the full rights of citizens. Alexandria, Antioch, and Ephesus, the three commercial cities of the empire. Language and civilization of Rome establishing themselves in the provinces of south-western Europe. Goths on the shores of the Baltic. Huns still in north-eastern Asia.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CÆSARS WHO SUCCEEDED AUGUSTUS.

(A. D. 14-96.)

Tiberius, the step-son and adopted heir of Augustus, after pretended hesitation accepted the empire, A. D. 14. The legions on the Rhenish frontier, however, proclaimed as emperor their commander, the young Germanicus, nephew of Tiberius. But Germanicus, declaring that he would rather die than betray his trust, brought back the soldiers to their allegiance, and led them to victory, recovering the lost eagles of Varus and defeating the renowned Hermann himself.

Tiberius, filled with jealousy, soon removed his nephew to a different field, where his death occurred shortly after, —as there was good reason to believe, from the effects of poison.

Naturally suspicious of those about him, Tiberius became in time a relentless tyrant. He was at last persuaded by his vile minister Sejanus to retire from the capital to the island of Capræ (Map, p. 112), which at once became the scene of the most detestable orgies. His boon companions he promoted to the chief offices of the state, and even made one sharer of his revels a high magistrate for having drunk five bottles of wine at a draught.

Sejanus took advantage of his absence to conspire against his life with a view to usurping the empire, but was denounced to Tiberius and executed. The tyrant's thirst for blood was now insatiable ; men, women, and even children, were sacrificed to his rage. "Let the people hate me," he said, "so long as they obey me." Death put an end to his cruelties in the year 37, when he was smothered in bed by his attendants.

The emperor Tiberius extinguished the last sparks of popular liberty. Despotism was firmly established, and the debased and obsequious senate fawned at its master's feet. It was during this reign that the crucifixion of our Saviour took place. On hearing of Christ's miracles and resurrection, the emperor wished to enroll his name among the nation's gods, but was overruled in this case by the senate.

Caligula, the only surviving son of Germanicus, was the next Cæsar. He was called Calig'ula because he wore *caligæ*, or soldiers' buskins, when he lived in camp with his father.

The new emperor was weak in both body and mind ; and though at first an amiable ruler, he soon gave way to shameful dissipation and capricious tyranny. His fondness for gladiatorial shows led him to disgrace the majesty of the Cæsars by entering the arena himself. The old and infirm were thrown to his wild beasts. Even at his meals he had persons racked before him that he might enjoy their groans ; and in his frenzy he exclaimed, "Would that the people of Rome had a single neck, that I might dispatch them at a blow !" Even when he kissed his wife, it was his custom to place his hand on her throat and say, "Fair as it is, how easily I could cut it !"

Caligula also rioted in scandalous extravagance, dissolving jewels in his sauce, and dining beneath trees planted on the decks of vessels which had silken sails and sterns of ivory inlaid with precious stones. He was wont to wade barefoot through his heaps of gold, or with insane delight to roll himself upon them like a dog. His favorite horse, which was often invited from its marble stable to its master's board, to eat gilded oats and drink wine from costly beakers, he made consul ; while he declared himself a god, causing the head to be struck from statues of Jupiter and replaced with his own.

In the fourth year of his reign, this madman was cut down by the outraged officers of his guard (A. D. 41).

Claudius, the brother of Germanicus, was now proclaimed emperor by the soldiers. This monarch, who from a child had been considered almost imbecile, was controlled by unprincipled women and favorites. Still, he diligently administered justice, and constructed, among other public works, the Claudian Aqueduct, and the Portus Roma'nus, an artificial harbor at the mouth of the Tiber.

Claudius also invaded Britain; and it was during his reign that Carac'tacus, the intrepid king of the Silu'res of South Wales, was captured and brought to Rome. "Alas!" said the prisoner, as he gazed on the splendor of the city, "how can people possessed of such magnificence at home envy Caractacus his humble cottage in Britain?"

In this age the popular taste for the shows of the amphitheatre became a passion, and Claudius gratified the people with a grand sea-fight, in which two fleets, manned by 19,000 gladiators, engaged in actual conflict.

While such inhuman sports went hand in hand with the grossest profligacy at Rome, the holy apostles were spreading the doctrines of their Master throughout the world. "Christians" (first so called in Antioch) became numerous among both Jews and Gentiles.

Nero.—A dish of poisoned mushrooms proved fatal to the weak Claudius, A. D. 54; it was prepared by order of his wife Agrippi'na, who had previously secured the succession for Nero, her son by a former husband. This young prince, the grandson of Germanicus, for five years ruled with justice and clemency. He is even said, when required to sign the death-warrant of a malefactor, to have expressed regret that he had ever learned to write.

As Nero increased in years, however, he began to show the stuff of which he was made. His murder of Agrippi'na, who for his sake had become a murderess, commenced

a career of crime to which history offers no parallel ; and the only wonder is, that it was so long tolerated by the people. Their forbearance is explained by the liberal largesses of food supplied to them at the expense of the state. As long as they were fed, they were willing to close their eyes to the vices of their emperors, and even to participate therein.

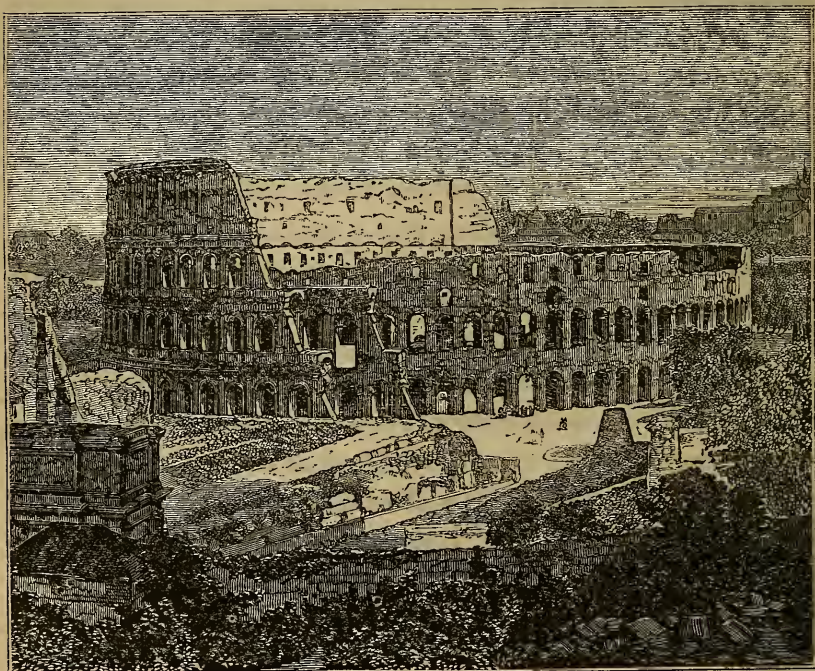
In the tenth year of this reign, a conflagration destroyed the greater part of Rome. It was rumored that the emperor himself had fired the city, and enjoyed a view of the flames from a lofty tower, singing the Sack of Troy. To screen himself, he charged the crime upon the Christians, and began a persecution, the details of which are too shocking for recital. Among the martyrs were the apostles Peter and Paul.

Tyranny, cruelty, and extortion, at length provoked a conspiracy. Its detection led to fresh murders, which spared not even such men as Lu'can the poet, and Sen'eca the moralist. The family of Augustus was extirpated, and fear of the poisoners and assassins of Nero fell on all the rich and noble. At last the world could endure the monster no longer. His generals revolted ; the senate declared him a public enemy ; and the cowardly despot, fearing to kill himself, received a death-blow at the hands of a slave (A. D. 68).

Nero was the last of the Julian line ; but history recognizes Twelve Cæsars, the six successors of Nero making up the number. From this time, military command or favor with the army seems to have been the surest road to the imperial throne.

During Nero's reign, Boadice'a, a gallant British queen, roused her people to insurrection. London was sacked and burned, and many Romans were massacred ; but at last Boadicea's force was cut to pieces, and she took poison to escape captivity.

Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, the next three emperors, reigned during the years 68 and 69. Of the first two, who had revolted against Nero, the aged Galba was assassinated by the soldiers ; and Otho, after an unsuccessful battle with his rival Vitel'lius, fell upon his sword. Vitellius succeeded ; but the eastern legions soon rebelled. Vespas-



RUINS OF THE COLOSSEUM.

sian (*ves-pa'zhe-ăn*), commander of the Roman army in Judea, was proclaimed emperor, and Vitellius was killed by the people in the streets.

Flavius Vespasian, who now ascended the throne, ruled with a firm but lenient hand, applied himself to the reform of abuses in both civil and military affairs, and introduced a happy period of prosperity and legal government, called from his family the Fla'vian Era. Among other splendid buildings, Vespasian began the great Colosse'um,

where 87,000 spectators found room. At its dedication in the following reign, 5,000 wild beasts were killed in the arena, and the games in honor of the event lasted a hundred days.

Success also attended the Roman arms. The Jews, who had been driven to rebellion by the oppression of their governor, were besieged in their capital by Ti'tus, the son of Vespasian. After the doomed nation had suffered miseries inconceivable, the city was taken by the Romans. In vain Titus tried to save the Temple from his soldiery; the divine decree had gone forth, and "not one stone was left upon another." As the Roman general gazed upon the ruined battlements, he devoutly said, "God has been my helper, for what could the hands of men have availed against those formidable walls?"

Hundreds of thousands of Jews perished in this memorable siege; the homeless survivors were "led away captive into all nations," and their city was "trodden down of the Gentiles."

In Britain, during the reigns of Vespasian and his sons, the Roman governor Agric'ola extended the limits of the empire and instructed the people in the arts of civilization. He also defeated the Caledonians (*Highlanders*), and built a line of forts between the Friths of Forth and Clyde.

Vespasian died A. D. 79, the first emperor after Augustus that met with a natural death.

Titus, the successor of Vespasian, was one of the few emperors who seem to have had the true good of their people sincerely at heart. His highest pleasure was to bestow favors. "No man," he said, "ought to leave the prince's presence disappointed." Unable one night to recall any kindness done during the day that had closed, he said with regret, "My friends, I have lost this day."

Titus reigned but two years. During this time he

condemned no citizen to death, and even declared that he would rather die himself than take the life of another.

It was in the year of his accession (79 A. D.) that the Campanian cities of Hercula'neum and Pompeii (*pom-pa'ye*) were buried by an eruption of Mt. Vesuvius. The ruins were undisturbed for more than sixteen centuries, when they were accidentally discovered during the digging of a well. Excavations were made; and from the houses, shops, and temples, with their domestic utensils, paintings, and sculptures, has been derived much interesting information respecting the every-day life of the ancient Romans.

Domitian, the younger son of Vespasian, was the impersonation of savage cruelty and every vice. Murders and confiscations were revived, while the people were amused with the most extravagant entertainments. Even women were brought out to fight in the arena.

This august emperor once called the senate together, to decide how a fish should be cooked for his dinner! He taxed his ingenuity to devise new torments for those whom he condemned, and in the brief intervals between the executions of his victims found amusement in torturing flies.

Members of his own household at last struck down the tyrant in his palace (A. D. 96).

Literature.—After the death of Augustus, Roman literature gradually declined. Still a few distinguished writers attained the high standard of the Golden Age—Persius and Juvenal, the satirists; Lucan, the author of the epic *Pharsalia*; Tacitus, “the first who applied the science of philosophy to the study of facts;” Quintil'ian, the rhetorician and critic, with his “*Institutes of Oratory*;” and Pliny the naturalist.

Among contemporaneous Greek writers were, Josephus the Jewish historian, who has been styled “the Grecian Livy;” and Plutarch, the great biographer of antiquity. Somewhat later flourished the witty and versatile Lucian.

In this age, also, the Gospels and Epistles of the New Testament were written.

The Twelve Cæsars.

Julius Cæsar, . . . lived B. C. 100-44.	Galba, . . . reigned A. D. 68-69.
Augustus, reigned B. C. 30-A. D. 14.	Otho, 69.
Tiberius, A. D. 14-37.	Vitellius, 69.
Caligula, 37-41.	Vespasian, 69-79.
Claudius, 41-54.	Titus, 79-81.
Nero, 54-68.	Domitian, 81-96.



CHAPTER XIX.

THE FIVE GOOD EMPERORS.—WANE OF THE EMPIRE.—(A. D. 96-306.)

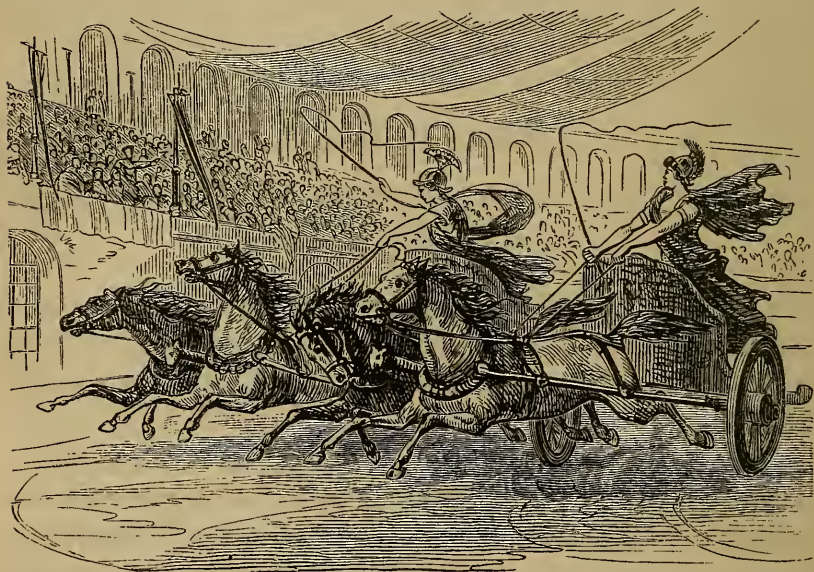
Nerva.—The bloody reign of Domitian was succeeded by a long period of tranquillity. The senate elected in his stead the aged Nerva, whose mild administration recalled the happy days of Titus.

Finding himself unable to control the violence of the Pretorian Guard, Nerva adopted as his colleague and successor the commander of the legions on the Rhine, Trajan, a Spaniard by birth, who had grown up in the camp. On the death of his associate (A. D. 98), Trajan was invested with the purple. When he presented the symbol of office to the prefect of the Pretorian Guard, he said, "Take this sword and use it, for me if I do well; if otherwise, against me."

Trajan.—The military talents of the new emperor soon displayed themselves. He pushed his arms beyond the Danube, and reduced Da'cia to a province; in this campaign he is said to have torn up his own robes to supply bandages for his wounded soldiers.

In the East, he engaged in hostilities with the Parthians, and conquered Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria. Part of Arabia was also reduced ; and seeing a vessel ready to start for India, the ambitious monarch exclaimed, " Were I yet young, I would not stop till I had reached the limit of the Macedonian conquests."

As a ruler, Trajan was deserving of all praise. Throughout Italy and the provinces his architectural works arose, while at Rome the Forum of Trajan challenged admiration,



CHARIOT-RACE IN TRAJAN'S CIRCUS.

and his famous marble column bore on its sculptured shaft the story of his Dacian triumph. He also rebuilt the Circus, giving it a capacity sufficient for nearly 400,000 spectators.

The senate decreed him the title of *Optimus*, the Best; and long after his death it was accustomed to welcome a new emperor with the wish that he might be more prosperous than Augustus and better than Trajan.

Ha'drian, who succeeded (A. D. 117), wisely abandoned most of Trajan's conquests, and devoted himself to the improvement of his empire. Fifteen years he spent in travelling through the provinces, that he might inform himself of the condition of his subjects.

In Britain the incursions of the Caledonians were checked by a strong rampart built across the island. Athens, still the seminary of the nations, was adorned with splendid fanes, and Rome with the massive Mausoleum or Mole of Hadrian, and the imposing temple of Rome and Venus. This was the golden age of Roman sculpture and architecture.

The death of Hadrian took place A. D. 138, after he had chosen the virtuous Antoninus as his successor.

The Antonines.—The era of the Antonines, who ruled with the sole view of promoting the welfare of their subjects, comprised the happiest period of the Roman Empire.

The peaceful reign of the elder Antoninus (Pius) terminated A. D. 161, when his adopted son Marcus Aurelius, at the request of the senate, ascended the throne. His wisdom and learning have gained him the title of the Philosopher.

Though inclined to peace, this prince was obliged to take the field to defend his people from the swarms of northern barbarians that were now crossing the frontiers. While he was generally successful, he was unable to break their power, and thenceforth the Roman dominion was in constant danger of invasion.

Com'modus, the weak and illiterate son of Marcus Aurelius, began his reign A. D. 180. Profligate companions easily led him astray; and he degenerated into a brutal tyrant, plunging into the grossest sensuality, and squandering the lives and fortunes of his subjects.

His great delight was to contend with gladiators and wild beasts; he is said to have been a victor in seven hun-

dred combats, and was styled the Roman Hercules. Arrayed as Hercules in a lion's skin, he once dressed up some beggars and cripples as monsters and made them attack him, supplying them with sponges to use as missiles ; when suddenly he fell upon them and beat them to death with his club. For amusement he would assault passers in the street, or cut off the noses of persons he pretended to shave.

Commodus was murdered by a favorite, who thus anticipated his design of putting her to death (A. D. 192).

Period of Military Despotism (A. D. 193-284). — The death of Commodus ushered in a long period of military tyranny, during which the unmanageable Pretorians appointed or dethroned emperors at will. They scrupled not to assassinate those rulers who incurred their displeasure, and even heaped ignominy upon the Roman name by selling the empire at public auction. Of the twenty-five monarchs who wore the purple during these dark years of seditions and murders, only the most important can be mentioned here.

SEPTIM'IUS SEVE'RUS (A. D. 192-211) disbanded the old Pretorians, but established a more formidable guard of 40,000 of his best soldiers. He ruled with an iron hand, and revived the glory of the Roman arms by his successes against the Parthians and in Britain.

CARACAL'LA, the tyrannical son of this emperor, secured the sole dominion by causing his brother to be stabbed in their mother's arms. Papin'ian, a famous lawyer of the day, when ordered publicly to vindicate the fratricide, refused, saying that it was easier to commit such a crime than to justify it,—and was condemned to death. Caracalla conferred citizenship on all the free inhabitants of the Roman Empire, in order that they might be taxed to supply money for his insatiable troops.

The reign of ELAGAB'ALUS, the boy-priest of the Syrian

sun-god (A. D. 218-222), was one tissue of insane follies and infamous crimes. A favorite diversion of his was to smother his guests with roses, or seat them at table on inflated bags which would suddenly collapse and throw them into the midst of wild beasts.

ALEXANDER SEVERUS, the cousin and successor of Elagabalus, was a learned and virtuous prince who labored faithfully in the cause of reform. His praiseworthy attempts to enforce discipline in the demoralized army cost him his life, and he fell (A. D. 235) by the swords of the Pretorians.

During the next thirty-five years the insolence of the troops reached its height, and the purple was repeatedly stained with imperial blood. The empire was on the one hand hard pressed by the barbarians, and on the other threatened with dissolution by a crowd of petty sovereigns, who usurped supreme power in the provinces. The most celebrated of them was Od-e-na'thus of Palmyra, who left his kingdom to his illustrious widow, the accomplished Zeno'bia.

Against this "Queen of Palmyra and the East," whose dominions reached from the Euphrates to the Mediterranean, the emperor AURE'LIAN directed his arms, besieging her in her capital. Despairing of relief, Zenobia attempted to escape on a fleet dromedary, but was overtaken and brought to Rome to adorn the conqueror's triumph (A. D. 273). Her preceptor and secretary, the critic Longi'nus, was executed; but the queen, after being exhibited to the people in chains of gold, was allowed to end her days in Italy with her children.

Palmyra, subsequently revolting, was taken by Aurelian and given up to pillage. Its site is now marked by a forest of white marble columns, towering above a waste of half-buried blocks, mutilated sculptures, and crumbling altars.

Diocle'tian.—With the accession of this prince (A. D. 284), fresh vigor was imparted to the declining Roman state. The power of the Pretorians was put down, and that of the emperor re-established ; while the reforms instituted by Diocletian distinguish him, like Augustus, as “the founder of a new empire.”

Diocletian was the son of a Roman senator's slave, and owed his advancement to his superior merit. On becoming emperor, he associated with himself, under the title of *Augustus*, the rough soldier Maxim'ian ; and not long afterward these two again divided the power, and shared the provinces with two *Cæsars*, Gale'rius and Constan'tius.

After the joint reign of Diocletian and Maximian had for about nineteen years restored the glory of Rome, they of their own accord gave up the purple, leaving the imperial power to the two Cæsars. Diocletian contentedly passed the evening of his life in rural occupations. To Maximian, who tried to induce him to re-assume the sceptre, the old monarch wrote, “Could you but see the cabbages I raise, you would no longer talk to me of empire !”

Persecutions of the Christians.—Despite his good qualities, Diocletian barbarously persecuted the Christians. They had long suffered from the cruelty of the pagan emperors. The name of Trajan was stained by the blood of numerous martyrs ; it was by his sentence that Igna'tius, Bishop of Antioch, had been torn to pieces in the amphitheatre. Even in the golden age of the Antonines the persecution went on, Justin Martyr being beheaded, and Pol'ycarp, Bishop of Smyrna, condemned to the flames.

Diocletian's persecution exceeded all others in atrocity. Still the Christians stood firm in their faith, dying the most painful and ignominious deaths with songs of praise upon their lips. We are told that the executioners were

exhausted, and their weapons dulled by the multitudes of victims.

It was during these great persecutions that the Catacombs, spacious subterranean vaults beneath the city of Rome, served as a hiding-place for the Christians. Here they worshipped, and entombed their dead.

Emperors from Nerva to Constantine.

Nerva, reigned A. D. 96-98.	De'cius, . reigned A. D. 249-251.
Trajan, . . . 98-117.	Gallus, . . . 251-253.
Hadrian, . . . 117-138.	Æmilia'nus, . . . 253.
Antoninus Pius, . 138-161.	Vale'rian, . . . 253-260.
{ Marcus Aurelius, . 161-180.	Gallie'nus, . . . 260-268.
{ Ve'rus, . . . 161-169.	Claudius, . . . 268-270.
Commodus, . . . 180-192.	Aurelian, . . . 270-275.
Per'tinax, Did'ius, 193.	Tacitus, . . . 275-276.
Septimius Severus, . 193-211.	Flo'rian, . . . 276.
{ Caracalla, . . . 211-217.	Pro'bus, . . . 276-282.
{ Geta (murdered 212), 211-212.	Ca'rus, . . . 282-283.
Macri'nus, . . . 217-218.	{ Cari'nus, . . . 283-285.
Elagabalus, . . . 218-222.	{ Nume'rian, . . . 283-284.
Alexander Severus, 222-235.	{ Diocletian, . . . 285-305.
Max'imin, . . . 235-238.	{ Maximian, . . . 286-305.
The Gordians (I., II.), 238.	{ Constantius I., . 305-306.
Pupie'nus, Balbi'nus, 238.	{ Gale'rius, . . . 305-311.
Gordian III., . . 238-244.	Constantine the Great, 306-337.
Philip, . . . 244-249.	Sole ruler, . . . 323-337.

CHAPTER XX.

CHRISTIANITY MADE THE RELIGION OF THE EMPIRE.—FALL OF ROME.

Constantine the Great.—In the year 306 the emperor Constan'tius died in the arms of his son, saying, "None but the pious Con'stantine shall succeed me." But it was

not until after a severe struggle with several rival aspirants that Constantine was established in the empire.

During his campaign against one of these, according to tradition, he was miraculously converted to Christianity by the appearance of a luminous cross in the heavens, bearing the inscription, "By this conquer." Under his protection Christianity rapidly progressed ; and paganism, though it was tolerated, ceased to be the religion of the state.

The reforms begun by Diocletian were carried out by Constantine. The seat of government was changed to Byzantium on the Bos'porus, which city was beautifully embellished and called after the emperor Constantinople. Here he erected the celebrated church of St. Sophia (dedicated to *Sophia*, the Eternal Wisdom). He also created a brilliant court, and a titled nobility of dukes, counts, etc., now for the first time recognized.

During the reign of Constantine, an Œcumenical, or General, Council of the Christian Church met at the city of Nicæ'a (see Map, p. 156). This council (A. D. 325) condemned the doctrine of A'rius, who denied Christ's equality with God the Father, and adopted the articles of faith set forth in the Nicene Creed.

Though instrumental in establishing Christianity, Constantine seems to have been guilty of acts directly opposed to its spirit. After his death (A. D. 337), the empire passed into the hands of his three sons. Civil strife soon broke out ; two of the brothers were killed ; and the third died when on the eve of a war with his cousin Julian (A. D. 361).

Julian the Apostate, the last of the family of Constantine, who now became sole emperor, at once renounced the faith in which he had been reared, wrote against Christianity, subjected its professors to many disabilities, and restored the heathen worship of Greece and Rome. Anxious to falsify the prophecy of Scripture and thus deal Chris-

tianity a death-blow, he made preparations on an extensive scale for rebuilding the Jewish temple. Workmen were collected in great numbers ; but no sooner did they commence operations than the earth gave vent to globes of flame, which with fearful explosions dispersed the laborers, and compelled them to give up the undertaking.

In a war with Sa'por, king of the Persians, Julian received a fatal wound (A. D. 363). A tradition is current that when he perceived his injury was mortal, he collected a handful of his blood, and casting it toward heaven exclaimed, "Take thy fill, Galile'an ; thou hast conquered !"

Jo'vian, the successor of Julian, purchased the safety of the Roman army by a disgraceful treaty with Sapor. He re-established Christianity, but extended toleration to his pagan subjects.

Sapor was a king of the New Persian, or Sassanid, Monarchy. This was founded A. D. 226, by a son of the Persian Sassan, who defeated and slew the last of the Parthian kings. It flourished for a century after the death of Sapor (380–500).

Valentinian and Valens.—These brothers next reigned, respectively in the West and East. The former, although a Christian, and in his calmer moments a judicious and impartial ruler, yet possessed a passionate temper which frequently betrayed him into atrocious cruelties. "Burn him alive !" "Strike off his head !" were sentences which he often pronounced even for slight offences. His death was caused by the bursting of a blood-vessel in a violent fit of rage (A. D. 375).

In the reign of Va'lens, a new enemy, the ferocious Huns, spread terror and desolation on the outskirts of the empire. They fell upon the Goths, a brave Teutonic race, who had exchanged their original seats on the Baltic for the plains north of the Black Sea and the lower Danube, and who had several times crossed swords with the later

emperors. Driven from their domains by barbarians more savage than themselves, the Goths on promises of amity and submission were allowed by the Romans to cross the Danube and settle in Thrace.

But ill-treatment soon roused the new-comers to rebellion ; and during an engagement with them the emperor Valens was consumed in the flames of a cottage in which he had taken refuge. Hardly a third of the Roman army escaped, and the victorious Goths advanced in a career of plunder to the very walls of Constantinople.

The Huns were Tartars, frightful to look upon—with bent figures, small, black eyes sunk in their large heads, flattened noses, and faces scarred to prevent the growth of the beard. They lived in the saddle, and appalled the bravest with their shrill yells. In the second century B. C. they had broken through the Great Wall of China, ravaged that country, and made it tributary. Afterward they pushed their way to the West, entered Europe, and at length burst like a thunderbolt upon the Goths, as we have seen.

Theodo'sius the Great was the last who held the whole Roman world beneath his sway. By skillful management he reduced the Goths to submission, and even enlisted them in his armies ; many of them had before this been converted to Christianity, and a version of the Scriptures had been made into the Gothic tongue.

During the reign of Theodosius the pagan worship was suppressed, and several of the most distinguished "Christian Fathers" flourished. Ambrose of Mil'an composed his Hymns ; Jerome' made a translation of the Bible into Latin—the basis of the present Vulgate ; Chrys'ostom (the *Golden-mouthed*) preached with unction at Antioch and composed his eloquent homilies ; and Au'gustine sowed the good seed in Africa.

Before his death, Theodosius formally divided his do-

minions between his sons Arca'dius and Hono'rius, giving to the former the sovereignty of the East and to the latter that of the West. Henceforth the histories of the Eastern or Byzan'tine, and the Western Empire, run in different channels.

Barbarian Inroads.—We have now reached the time when the Teutonic element, destined materially to modify the civilization and shape the history of modern Europe, first comes prominently into view. The German tribes, hitherto contented with their free forest-life, find out at last that there are sunnier fields in the south all ready for the sickle, and wealth untold with only nerveless arms to dispute with them for its possession.

Several inundations of barbarians occurred in the reign of Honorius (A. D. 395–423). Italy was invaded by the Goths under Al'aric, and ravaged by a combined horde of Vandals, Burgundians, and Sue'vi—Teutons all. For a time the strong arm of Stilicho (*stil'e-ko*), the Roman general, held the invaders in check. Alaric was defeated. The Vandals and Burgundians, repelled from Italy, seized a vast tract between the Rhine and Pyrenees (afterward *Burgundy*) ; and the Vandals, crossing these mountains, overran Spain, and finally occupied the southern part of the peninsula, called from them *Vandalusia*. Hence they crossed into northern Africa (A. D. 429), and there founded an empire which became the terror of the surrounding countries.

After the execution of Stilicho by his suspicious master, the Goths renewed their incursions and appeared before Rome itself (A. D. 408). The senate sent ambassadors who sought to intimidate their leader by representing the number and desperate valor of the Romans. But Alaric haughtily replied, "The thicker the hay, the easier it is mowed," and demanded so enormous a ransom that the astonished ministers asked, "What then, O king ! do you

intend to leave us ?” “Your lives,” was the response, and there was no alternative but to meet the demand.

But the folly of the court of Honorius brought Alaric again before Rome (A. D. 410). His soldiers entered the city at midnight, and for five days the sack continued. The death of Alaric soon after, postponed the overthrow of the Western Empire.

A river was turned from its bed by a band of captives ; and the Goths, burying their king in the channel with all his gold and jewels, compelled these prisoners to restore the stream to its natural course, and then murdered them that the secret spot might never be betrayed.—Shortly after the kingdom of the Visigoths (Western Goths) was established in southern Gaul and Spain.

In the reign of Valentinian III. (A. D. 425–455), At'tila, the king of the Huns, who called himself the Scourge of God, traversed the Roman Empire with fire and sword. At last he was defeated with great slaughter at Chalons (*shah-lon'*) by the combined Romans and Visigoths. He now retreated, but afterward crossed the Alps and laid waste northern Italy. Many of the inhabitants, to escape his ravages, fled for refuge to the neighboring islands of the Adriatic, and there founded the republic of Venice, “the eldest daughter of the Roman Empire” (A. D. 452).

The capital of the Cæsars was saved by the intercession of Leo the Great, Bishop of Rome, who, at the risk of his life, entered Attila's camp and ransomed his flock. The following year witnessed the sudden death of this barbarian king, and with him perished the empire of the Huns, who were swallowed up in other tribes and lost to history.

Fall of the Western Empire.—After the murder of Valentinian III., A. D. 455, nine emperors, in rapid succession, held the sceptre of the West. But their dominions were becoming more and more contracted ; distant provinces had already been abandoned, and at last Italy alone

remained. Imperial Rome was again sacked, by Gen'seric king of the Vandals, who carried away its remaining wealth, and even its empress, to Africa. At last the tottering fabric, internally rotten, yielded to the storm.

Romulus Augustus, contemptuously styled Augustulus, the last emperor of the West, was dethroned by Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, a German tribe (A. D. 476). Rejecting the imperial diadem, Odoacer reigned as king of Italy.

Eastern Empire.—In the Eastern Empire there were few events worthy of record. Theodosius II., son of the feeble Arcadius, though well-disposed, would have made a poor figure but for his wise and virtuous sister Pulcheria (*pul-ke're-ä*), who governed in his name. The history of the East, like that of the West, about this time shows little else than a series of struggles with Goths, Huns, and Vandals, on the part of weak monarchs and an effeminate people.

Roman Emperors after Constantine.

Constantine II.,	A. D. 337–340.	Valentinian I.,	A. D. 364–375.
Constans I.,	337–350.	Gratian,	375–383.
Constantius II.,	337–361.	Valentinian II.,	375–392.
Sole emperor,	350–361.	Max'imus, usurper,	383–388.
Julian the Apostate,	361–363.	Theodosius the Great,	379–395.
Jovian,	363–364.	Sole emperor,	392–395.

Roman Empire divided, A. D. 395.

CHAPTER XXI.

COMMENCEMENT OF MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY begins with the fall of Rome, A. D. 476. The divisions of Europe at this time are shown in the Map on the next page.

EUROPE

After the overthrow
of the Western Empire
About 500 A.D.



Eastern Empire.—After the partition of the Roman Empire, the chief interest connected with the eastern portion centres in Justin'ian, who stands out in bold relief from a succession of comparatively insignificant sovereigns. The son of an humble barbarian though the nephew of an emperor, he was educated at the capital, and became the associate and successor of his uncle Justin in 527. His administration was marked by lavish expenditures and exactions at home, but by a series of military successes abroad which for a time restored the prestige of the Roman arms. These were achieved mostly by the genius of Belisa'rius, who was intrusted with the command of the Byzantine armies.

CONQUESTS OF JUSTINIAN.—The Vandal Empire in northern Africa, which had long been troublesome to both East and West, having first been destroyed, the next object of Justinian's ambition was the acquisition of the Gothic kingdom of Italy. This kingdom had been founded by Theod'oric the Ostrogoth (*Eastern Goth*), who led his nation across the Alps, overthrew Odoa'cer (493), and established himself on the throne.

Theodoric had been sent in his youth as a hostage to Constantinople, where he had been educated in warlike exercises, but had scorned literary pursuits, so that when restored to the Goths he could not write his own name. As king of Italy he showed the same distaste for letters and for schools, declaring that the child who trembled at a rod would never dare to look upon a sword. Still he had learned how to rule with liberality and wisdom; and during his reign of thirty-three years, Italy enjoyed prosperity and peace.

Justinian took advantage of the dissensions that arose on Theodoric's death to send Belisarius with an army to Italy. Rome was taken; Vit'iges the Gothic king surrendered Ravenna, and was sent a prisoner to Constanti-

nople. Belisarius was then recalled, and the conquest of Italy was completed by Narses in 554.

Justinian was also engaged in wars with the Persians, and during the last years of his reign he was compelled to call upon Belisarius to deliver his capital from the Bulgarians. In spite of all his services, Belisarius was finally accused of conspiracy, deprived of his fortune, and imprisoned. There is a story that in his old age he was led about the streets by a child, begging "a penny for Belisarius the general."

WORKS OF PEACE.—The most useful work of Justinian's reign was the revision of the Roman laws, and their arrangement in the code which bears his name. Europe is also indebted to him for its knowledge of the manufacture of silk, which was before confined to the Chinese. Among this people the disclosure of the secret was punishable with death; but two Persian monks, tempted by the gifts of Justinian, eluded their vigilance by hiding some silk-worms' eggs in a hollow cane and bringing them to Constantinople.

Justinian rebuilt the church of Saint Sophia, which had been burned, and enriched it with marbles, gold, silver, and precious stones. When he beheld it in all its grandeur for the first time, we are told that he exclaimed, "Solomon, I have surpassed thee!" This building is now a magnificent Turkish mosque.

LOSS OF TERRITORY.—Justinian was succeeded by his nephew Justin II. (565). During his reign, the Lombards (*long-beards*) overran Italy and easily wrested it from the empire. A limited district still remained to the Byzantine *exarchs*, whose capital was Ravenna, and who exercised civil, military, and even ecclesiastical power. In like manner, other provinces were lost. The Persians conquered Syria, pillaged Jerusalem, and advanced to the very walls of Constantinople and Alexandria. At last, in

the tenth century, hostile settlements were planted within the very sight of the Byzantine capital.

Progress of the Church.—Meanwhile the Christian Church had been greatly extended, even in distant and barbarous regions. Zealous preachers went out with their lives in their hands to convert the heathen. Monasteries gave shelter to thousands of monks, whose solitary lives were spent in worship and works of charity, in the study of the Scriptures, agricultural labors, the copying of manuscripts, and the mastering of ancient lore. But superstition and heresy had from time to time crept in. Ambitious prelates arose; and long-continued struggles between the Patriarchs of Constantinople and the Bishops of Rome for ecclesiastical supremacy, no less than differences of doctrine and usage, led to the final separation of the Eastern or Greek, and the Western or Roman, Church.

Merovingian Dynasty in France.—We must now glance at western Europe. Among the Teutonic tribes that overran the Roman province of Gaul were the Franks (*free-men*), who, under Merovæ'us, one of their Long-haired kings, established a dynasty called from him the Merovin'gian.

Clo'vis, the grandson of Merovæus, became king at the age of fifteen (481), conquered many of the surrounding tribes, overthrew the Visigoths in Gaul, and established a monarchy in that country, which was called France from his people. He was converted to Christianity through the efforts of his queen, the fair Clotilda, a Burgundian princess. Pressed nigh to defeat in an engagement with the Alemanni, he fell on his knees and cried, "God of Clotilda, aid me in this hour, and I confess thy name!" The tide of battle turned as by a miracle, and the king with 3,000 of his warriors afterward received baptism at Rheims (*reemz*).

In comparison with later monarchs, Clovis enjoyed but

slight authority. When the spoil taken in Gaul was spread out for distribution, he chose for himself a beautiful vase. A common soldier, noticing this, struck it with his battle-axe and said, "You shall have nothing here except what falls to you by lot;" and the king durst not resent the insult.

Treachery and violence of every kind characterized Merovingian rule. To remove rivals from their path, the kings ruthlessly thinned out the royal line by assassinations; but at last they became mere puppets in the hands of ambitious Mayors of the Palace, elected by the nobles.

Britain.—About fifty years before the overthrow of the Western Empire, the last Roman general sent into Britain, after repairing the wall across the north of the island, withdrew his legions to protect the provinces nearer Italy. This was a signal for the Picts and Scots (Caledonians) to renew their incursions; and the Britons, in their need, are said to have solicited the aid of the Saxons, a German tribe near the Elbe (449). Joined by the Angles, and under the leaders Hengist and Horsa, the Saxons repulsed the northern invaders, and then resolved to seize on the more favored portions of the country.

Two stories are told of the stratagem by which Hengist obtained land for his settlement. A Welsh historian says that after buying as much ground as he could inclose with an ox-hide, he cut the hide into strips, and so surrounded enough to build a castle on. The Saxons relate that he paid an extravagant price for a lapful of earth, which he scattered over a large space, and then, as it could not be separated from the rest, claimed the whole.

The Britons contended bravely with the Saxons for their independence, but were at length overcome and driven into the mountains of Wales, where their descendants have preserved their language to the present time.

Saxon Heptarchy.—The Saxons founded seven states,

constituting what is known as the Saxon Heptarchy. After a series of wars with each other, they were united in 827 under Egbert, king of the West Saxons, who thus became sole monarch of England (*Angle-land*).

The Saxons were converted to Christianity at the close of the sixth century. Pope* Gregory the Great, when a young deacon, passing through the Roman market-place, observed some fair-haired youths exposed for sale as slaves. Struck by their beauty, he inquired to what country they belonged. Being informed that they were Angles, he exclaimed, "Not Angles, but angels." In after-days he remembered the fair captives, and sent Au'gustin at the head of an embassy to Ethelbert, king of Kent, with a view to the conversion of their people.

When the entreaties of his Christian queen were united to the eloquence of Augustin, Ethelbert yielded, was baptized, and Christianity soon became the established faith of the Heptarchy.

The Saxons wore long flowing hair, tunics fastened at the waist, cloth mantles, and shoes with wooden soles. Their dwellings were rude; even the king's palace was carpeted with rushes, while light was admitted through slits in the wall. Music and poetry were cultivated, and minstrels played and sang in the houses and castles. Free-men only were permitted to own a harp, and the loss of this instrument was attended with degradation from rank.

Children were educated in hunting and war, to the neglect of reading and writing. Before Augustin came to England it is doubtful whether there was a book in the island; King Alfred, two centuries later, gave five hundred acres of land for a single geographical work. Yet the Venerable Bede, "the founder of mediæval history,"

* This was a name (from *papa*, father) originally applied to every bishop, but finally restricted to the Bishop of Rome, who claimed to be supreme head of the church.



CONVERSION OF ETHELBERT.

who lived at the close of the seventh century, was distinguished for his learning.

The Saxons were superstitious, believed in dreams and witchcraft, and wore charms to keep off diseases and evil

spirits. Their mode of trial was called the ordeal. The accused person, after fasting and prayer, was made to take a red-hot iron ball in his hand, or walk blindfold over heated ploughshares ; if, in either case, he escaped being burned, he was declared innocent.

Contemporaneous Sovereigns.

EMPERORS OF THE EAST.

Arcadius, A. D. 395-408.

Theodosius II., 408-450.

Marcian, 450-457.

Leo I., 457-474.

Zeno, 474-491.

(Fall of Rome.)

Anasta'tius I., 491-518.

Justin I., 518-527.

Justinian I., 527-565.

Justin II., 565-574.

EMPERORS OF THE WEST.

Honorius, A. D. 395-423.

Valentinian III., 425-455.

Maximus, 455-457.

Seven obscure emperors.

Augustulus, 475-476.

KINGS OF ITALY.

Theodoric, 493-526.

Athal'aric, 526-534.

Theod'atus ; Vitiges ; Tot'ila.

Duke Narses governs Italy.

Alboin, the Lombard.



CHAPTER XXII.

MOHAMMED. — SARACEN EMPIRE. — CARLOVIN- GIAN DYNASTY IN FRANCE.

Mohammed and his Religion.—While Europe in the seventh century was sinking into the darkness of the Middle Ages, Arabia gave birth to a nation destined to work great changes in the history of the world. This region, known to the Romans only as the land of spices and perfumes, while it was the seat of a few scattered towns and castles, was inhabited mainly by roving tribes, the descendants of Ishmael, son of Abraham. The rearing of sheep, camels, and horses, their chief pursuit, they wan-

dered from one green spot to another in search of water and pasturage.

Among some of these nomadic tribes the rites and tenets of the Jewish faith prevailed, though in a form more or less corrupted ; others had become adherents of Christianity, first introduced into their country by the preaching of St. Paul ; on the north-eastern frontier, the fire-worship of the Persians had gained a foothold ; but by far the greatest number adored as gods the heavenly bodies, or graven images erected in their honor in temples and groves.

In Mecca, the sacred city of the Ar'abs, was born in the year 569, MOHAM'MED, who, uniting his countrymen on the basis of a common faith, was to lay the foundation of their greatness. In early life an humble merchant, as he approached middle age he became subject to fits of melancholy, during which, he stated, the angel Ga'briel appeared to him, gave him a new revelation, and commanded him to proclaim it to the world.

THE KORAN.—The principal points of this faith are found in the Ko'ran, which the pretended prophet gave to his countrymen in successive parts, and which they accepted as their sacred book.

The Koran taught that there was but one God, by whom divers prophets—Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and Mohammed, the last and greatest of all—had been sent to instruct the human race. To the assurance that every man had his appointed time to die, it added a promise of eternal happiness to those who perished in propagating the faith. Unbelievers were to suffer forever ; but all “ the faithful ” would be cleansed from their sins, however great, by a longer or shorter period of punishment, and be finally admitted to a paradise of sensual pleasures. There they would dwell in marble palaces, attired in silken robes, surrounded by fruits, and flowers, and beautiful attendants. Mohammed enjoined his disciples to fast, to

abstain from wine, to wash frequently, to pray five times a day, make pilgrimages to Mecca, and spread his doctrines with the sword.

THE HEGIRA.—In 609, Mohammed began to preach in Mecca, but outside of his own family he made few converts. A powerful faction, excited by jealousy, determined on his death; but Ali (*ah'le*), his faithful cousin, putting on the prophet's mantle and lying on his couch, deceived the assassins, while Mohammed escaped from the city and took shelter in a cave. By the time his pursuers arrived, according to the legend, a spider had spun its web across the entrance, and a dove had built her nest there; whence, concluding that no one was within, they went their way. After three days the fugitive left the cave, and succeeded in reaching Medina (*me-de'nă*).

This flight took place in 622, and is known as the Hegira (*he-ji'ră*). Mohammedan chronology dates from this event, as the Christian does from the birth of Christ.

ISLAMISM ESTABLISHED.—In Medina Mohammed made many converts, and seven years after the Hegira he captured Mecca and assumed the reins of government. Various military enterprises against the neighboring tribes were successful, and the new faith was soon extended by force of arms throughout the peninsula.

The Arabians were subsequently known as *Sar'acens*, and became distinguished in literature and science. The religion thus founded is called Mohammedanism, Islam* (*iz'lam*), or Islamism; and its adherents are distinguished as Mohammedans, Moslems* (*moz'lems*), or Mus'sulmans.*

Mohammed was remarkable for his manly beauty and fervent eloquence. He was charitable to the poor, lived on the plainest food, and even shrunk not from menial employments; with his own hands he swept his house, kindled his fire, milked his camels, and mended his stock-

* From an Arabic word, meaning "submission to God."

ings. He died at the age of sixty-three, and was buried at Medina. By some he is regarded as a self-deluding enthusiast, by others as nothing more than a bold impostor.

Conquests of the Caliphs.—The successors of Mohammed were called *Ca'liphs*. The first was Abubekr (*ah'-boo-bek'er*), father-in-law of the prophet, under whom and his successor O'mar, Syria, Persia, and Egypt, were subdued. Idolatry and magianism were swept away by the creed of the conquerors,—triumphs miraculously announced according to Moslem tradition, which informs us that on the night of Mohammed's birth the sacred fire of Zoroaster, kept burning by zealous Magi for more than a thousand years, was suddenly extinguished, and all the idols in the world fell down.

The city of Alexandria endured a protracted siege, but was finally taken ; and its celebrated library, reputed to contain several hundred thousand manuscripts, was given to the flames,—Omar saying that if they agreed with the Koran they were useless, and if not they were positively hurtful. These books, many of them the works of classical authors that have thus been lost to modern times, were distributed among four thousand baths, which they served as fuel for six months.

From Egypt the Saracens bore the triumphant banner of the prophet over northern Africa, and by the beginning of the eighth century they had reached the Atlantic. Here, opposite to the Canary Islands, their victorious emir, riding out among the waves, lamented that the ocean prevented him from planting the crescent in the unknown kingdoms of the West.

Saracenic Invasion of Europe.—At this time Spain was in a flourishing condition under the Visigothic king Roderic. One of Roderic's nobles whom he had wronged, thirsting for vengeance, invited the conquerors of Africa to invade his native land. They were but too glad of a

pretext, and on the field of Xeres (*ha-rēs'*) met Roderic, who appeared at the head of his hosts, crowned with pearls, reclining in an ivory car drawn by white mules. After a battle of seven days (711) he was overcome, and fled from the field, to be drowned in the Guadalquivir (*gaw-dal-kwiv'ir*). In a few years Spain was overrun, and became the seat of a Moorish dynasty which lasted eight centuries.

But Spain did not long satisfy the ambition of the Mohammedans. In 718, an innumerable host under a great chief, Abderrahman (*ahb-der-rah'mahn*), crossed the Pyr'enees, with their wives and children, to subdue the rest of Europe. The various peoples that they first encountered, separated by dissensions, were unable to withstand the invaders, who penetrated as far as Poitiers (*poi-teerz'*) without receiving any decisive check.

There they were met by Charles, a duke of the Franks (732). His stout German warriors, in an obstinate fight the issue of which for six days hung in the balance, finally proved themselves more than a match for their dreaded foes. Abderrahman perished in the conflict, and the remnant of his host soon returned to Spain. From the tremendous strokes of his immense battle-axe, Charles obtained the title of *Martel'* (the Hammer).

Bagdad.—Within a few years after this reverse, the empire of the caliphs was divided. A new Abderrahman established the throne of the Western Cal'iphate at Cor'dova; while in the East, Bagdad, founded by Al-Mansour (*ahl-mahn-soor'*), the Victorious, on the Tigris (in 762), became the Mohammedan capital. Al-Mansour was an enlightened patron of learning, and encouraged the translation of the best Greek works into Arabic. A taste for literature took still deeper root in the reign of his famous grandson Haroun-al-Raschid (*hah-roon' al rash'id*), one of the favorite heroes of Arabian romance.

This caliph, distinguished for piety and wisdom, was very liberal to the poor, especially to poets, being fond of Ar'ab poetry and himself a writer. That he might find out the real condition of his subjects, he was in the habit of going round among them in disguise. He was much beloved by his people ; they once covered the roads before him with rich carpets, when he was making a pilgrimage to Mecca on foot, in fulfillment of a vow.

Haroun carried on a series of successful wars with the Eastern Emperor, and compelled him to pay an annual tribute.

Within a century after Haroun's death, the Saracenic Empire was weakened by internal dissensions. Several governors of provinces rebelled, and established independent cal'iphates ; notwithstanding, Bagdad increased in wealth and magnificence. Among other wonders that it contained, an ambassador to the court of one of the later caliphs describes a tree of gold and silver, on the branches of which birds of the same precious metals fluttered and sung.

Bagdad was sacked by the Mongols in 1258. It was then the richest city in the world ; diamonds and jewelry of inestimable value were taken by the conquerors. The wretched caliph was enclosed in a leather sack, and dragged through the streets till he expired.

Carlovingian Dynasty in France.—Charles Martel, who repulsed the Saracens, was the real sovereign of France, though he ruled in the name of a weak Merovingian king. Pep'in, the son of Charles, wielding the same power but coveting also the title of king, appropriated the crown, and thus founded the Carlovingian line. The last of the Merovingians was shorn of his long hair in token of his deposition, and ended his days in a monastery.

Pepin was called the Short, being only four and a half feet high ; but he possessed great strength, and once cut

off a lion's head with a single blow of his sword, after having vainly dared his courtiers to encounter the savage beast. He was successful in wars with the Saxons ; and at the request of the pope, who was hard pushed by the Lom'bards, he invaded Italy, humbled their king, and laid the keys of their conquered cities on the tomb of St. Peter as a gift to the Holy See. Thus began the temporal power of the popes, who had before enjoyed only a spiritual authority.

On Pepin's death the kingdom descended to his sons, Charlemagne (*shar-le-mane'*) and Carloman.

Principal Successors of Mohammed.

- ABU-BEKR, 632-634.....Khaled (*kah'led*) the Saracen general, "the Sword of God."
- OMAR, 634-644.....Saracens defeat Heracl'us, Emperor of the East, 636 ; take Jerusalem, 637.
- OTHMAN, 644-655.....Saracens conquer part of Tartary ; build a fleet ; take Cyprus and Rhodes.
- ALI, 655-661.....Surnamed "the Lion of God." Cufa, on the Euphrates, made the capital.
- MOAWIYAH, 661-680.....Dynasty of the Ommiyades (*om-me'ya-deez*) begins ; Damascus their capital.
- ABOOL-ABBAS, 750-754....The dynasty of the Abbassides (*ab-bas'se-deez*) commences.
- AL-MANSOUR', 754-775....Bagdad made the capital, 762 ; Cordova, capital of the Moors in Spain, 756.
- HAROUN-AL-RASCHID.....(*Aaron the Just*) reigned, 786-809. The wicked Ire'ne Empress of the East. Charlemagne.
- AL-MAMOUN', 813-833....Medicine, geometry, astronomy, and literature, flourish at Bagdad.

600 A. D.—Roman civilization disappearing ; brute force predominates. The name *Angle-land* just given to part of the eastern coast of England ; St. Augustin first Archbishop of Canterbury. Merovingian kings in France ; mayors of the palace growing in power. Kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain, and Lombards in Italy. Eastern Empire, under Maurice, extends almost to the Caspian. Mohammed, thirty-one years old.

CHAPTER XXIII.

*CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS SUCCESSORS.—CON-
TEMPORANEOUS HISTORY.*

Empire of Charlemagne.—The kingdom which Pepin divided between his sons embraced parts of what are now Germany and France. On the death of the younger, Charlemagne the survivor secured the whole, 771.



CHARLEMAGNE.

The new monarch was almost a giant in stature and strength, of commanding presence, and proficient in all manly exercises. His warlike tastes and the disposition he appears to have entertained to make proselytes to Christianity by violence if persuasion failed, quickly involved him in contests with the surrounding nations.

A war with the Saxons (see Map, p. 172), which lasted thirty years, resulted in their reduction and enforced conversion. A crusade against the Lombards, undertaken meanwhile through the

entreaties of the pope, terminated with Charlemagne's assumption of the iron crown of Italy (774); and the invasion of Spain, resulting in the defeat of the Moors, led to the annexation of the country north of the E'bro.

While his victorious army was recrossing into France, the Basques suddenly fell on its rear division with great fury in the defiles of Roncevalles (*ron-se-vahl'ies*). Ro'-land, the famous Pal'adin, who was in command, refusing to sound his horn for aid, fought with desperate bravery until overcome by superior numbers. Then blowing a blast with his dying breath, he signalled Charlemagne, who hastened back only to find his most valiant warriors dead upon the field. The armies of the West also pushed their conquests eastward as far as the Theiss; and the subjugation of various German and Slavic tribes extended the boundaries of the conqueror in that direction.

In 800 Charlemagne visited Rome as the protector of Pope Leo III., and in return was crowned on Christmas-day by Leo with the golden diadem of the Cæsars. This event may be regarded as completing the foundation of the first Germanic Empire.

Charlemagne's title to the imperial crown was recognized, though with reluctance, by the emperor of the East. His renown spread into Asia. Haroun-al-Raschid, as a token of friendship, sent him a clock propelled by water-power, which was the wonder of the day. In the face were twelve doors which opened when the time arrived, letting brass balls fall on a bell to strike the hours. At twelve, knights on horseback came out and rode round the dial.

Justly ranked with Alexander and Cæsar, Charlemagne deserved the appellation of Great, not only by reason of his splendid conquests, but also for his promotion of civilization. He improved the laws and encouraged agriculture, established schools, and founded at Paris the first university in Europe. Himself a student, he employed some one to read aloud to him even at his meals. The English scholar Alcuin (*alk'win*), the most learned man of the age, flourished at his court, and was at once his adviser

EMPIRE of CHARLEMAGNE,



and friend. While in his mode of life he was plain and frugal, he adorned his capital Aix-la-Chapelle (*ayks-lah-shah-pel'*) with costly architectural works.

Division of the Empire.—Charlemagne left to Louis, the only son who survived him, his whole empire except Italy, which he bestowed upon his grandson Ber'nard (814). After the death of Louis and a period of intestine strife, the Western Empire was divided among his three sons (843). France fell to Charles the Bald, Germany to Louis, and Italy to Lothaire'.

The Normans.—Weakened by these unnatural quarrels, France now became an easy prey to the Norsemen or Danes, a nation of pirates from the distant coasts of Scandinavia (Denmark, Sweden, and Norway). In search of plunder, they were wont to land in immense hordes on the shores of the British Isles and the adjacent parts of the continent, massacre the inhabitants, seize what plunder they could, and hurry back to their vessels by the light of burning churches and dwellings.

Their chiefs, or vi'kings, fearlessly navigated the Northern Ocean, finding their way to the nearest land, when lost, by letting loose a hawk and following his flight, each ship being provided with a cage of these birds. The old warriors caused their friends to slay them, for to die a natural death was to be excluded from the joys of paradise. Woden,* the supreme deity, and Thor,* the god of war and thunder, were the principal objects of worship.

France had suffered from the depredations of these Norsemen before the death of Charlemagne, and once this great monarch said that he wept for the calamities which he perceived they would bring upon his realms. In the reign of his grandson Charles, they sailed up the Seine,

* Wednesday (*wodensdag*) was dedicated to Woden; Thursday (*thorsdag*), to Thor.

pillaged Paris, and left the country only on the payment of seven thousand pounds of silver.

Settlement of the Normans in France.—The Carlovingian kings grew more effeminate year by year. The Normans (*Norsemen*) renewed their incursions; and finally Charles the Simple in 911 gave them the northern part of France, on condition that they would leave the rest at peace, and embrace Christianity. The territory thus ceded was called from them *Normandy*.

Their valiant chief Rollo was so tall that he could not find a horse in Norway large enough for him to ride, and going on his expeditions afoot he was called Rollo the Marcher. When told that for the valuable grant he had received he must kiss the king's feet, he declared that he would never kiss the foot of man, and ordered one of his soldiers to do it in his stead. The latter, raising the king's foot to his mouth, threw him rudely to the ground amid the laughter of his companions, and Charles was obliged to submit to the insult.

Rollo was made a peer of France and received the title of *Duke*. Under his government the churches were rebuilt, the fields were cultivated, and robbery was almost unknown.

Commencement of the Capetian Dynasty.—Louis V., the Sluggard, the last of the Carlovingian kings, was poisoned by his queen. As he left no children, Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, was elected king by the barons (987). He thus became the founder of the Capetian line, and his family ruled in France for more than eight centuries. Hugh was succeeded by his son Robert the Pious, during whose reign Europe was desolated by a dreadful famine (1028–1030). Travellers were murdered on the highways and devoured by the starving peasants.

Germany was ruled by the descendants of Charlemagne until the death of Louis IV., when the nobles elected Con-

rad, Duke of Franconia, to fill the vacant throne (911). This monarch and his successor Henry I. were engaged chiefly in repelling barbarian invasions. The envoys who were sent to Henry, then Duke of Saxony, with the sacred arms and crown of the German sovereigns, found him hawking in the Hartz Mountains, with a falcon on his wrist ; whence he was called Henry the Fowler.

Otho I., the Great, succeeded his father Henry the Fowler in 936 ; and crossing the Alps at the head of a victorious army, was crowned Emperor of the West in 962 by the pope. He was occupied chiefly with subjugating and Christianizing the northern nations, and checking the inroads of the Hungarians, or Magyars.

These barbarians, who shaved their hair, disfigured their faces, and devoured raw flesh, had left their original abodes in the Ural Mountains, and ravaged Germany, Italy, and France. Henry the Fowler and Otho successively defeated them in two great battles, and compelled them to make permanent settlements. Shortly after this they embraced Christianity, and under Stephen the Pious (1000) advanced in the arts of peace.

The reign of Henry IV. (1056–1106) was a constant struggle with Pope Gregory VII. (Hil'debrand), who determined to rid the church of all interference on the part of earthly potentates. In the course of the quarrel he excommunicated * Henry, who was finally brought to terms, and obliged to stand fasting and barefoot in the snow for

* *Excommunication* was a solemn exclusion from church-membership, and from all intercourse, social and religious, with Christians. When inflicted on a monarch, it was held to involve a forfeiture of the crown and of the allegiance of his subjects. Sometimes the pope would put a whole kingdom *under an interdict*, in which case the churches were closed and all the services of religion suspended. It was thus sought to reduce a ruler to obedience, by exciting against him the detestation of his people. England was laid under an interdict in the reigns of Stephen, John, Henry VIII., and Elizabeth.

three days before being admitted to the pope's presence to implore his forgiveness.

Gregory was the founder of the political power of the popes, which was jealously guarded by his successors. For many years the influence of the emperors declined; while that of the popes, supported by the religious feeling of the times, increased, and exalted them above the kings of Europe.

Italy, after the death of Lothaire, suffered from the disputes of the Carolingian princes and the ravages of the Saracens. For about three hundred years after the imperial crown was conferred on Otho the Great, it formed a part of the German Empire.

During the eleventh century, the Normans established themselves in the south, reduced Sicily, and under Robert Guiscard (*geese-kar'*), founder of the kingdom of Naples, invaded the Byzantine Empire and defeated the emperor Alexius in battle. Robert possessed all the qualities of the soldier; he surpassed the tallest of his army in stature, and could wield at the same time the sword in his right hand, the lance in his left. He started from Normandy with only five horsemen and thirty soldiers; and this was the germ of an army that put to flight the emperors of the East and West.

Founding of the Russian Monarchy.—Northeastern Europe appears to have been early peopled by Slavonians, who founded the towns of Nov'gorod and Kiev (*ke-ev'*) as their capitals (see Map, p. 156). About the middle of the ninth century, a portion of these Slavonians, together with some Finnish tribes that were settled near them, became subject to Ru'rik, a Scandinavian chief. Under him the different elements united to form one nation—the Russian, in which the Slavonian language and customs predominated.

Christianity was tolerated in Russia as early as the

middle of the tenth century. The people, however, were still pagans, and even Queen Olga, who went to Constantinople to receive baptism, was unable to effect the conversion of her subjects. The doctrines of the Greek Church were finally introduced at the close of this century by Vlad'imir the Great, who also founded churches and schools.

The Moors in Spain.—After the defeat of Roderic (p. 167), the poor remains of the Visigoths found safety in the mountains of the North-west, and there established a Christian sovereignty. This for a time, assailed by its Moorish neighbors, maintained a precarious existence ; but it gradually grew in strength, and ultimately four Christian kingdoms were formed in Spain—Castile, Le'on, Ar'agon, and Navarre'.

Under the successors of Abderrahman, the caliphate of Cordova became distinguished for its power and magnificence ; in the beauty of its palaces and gardens, the capital even rivalled Bagdad. Cordova reached the height of its glory in the tenth century, when it contained a million inhabitants, a library of several hundred thousand volumes, six hundred mosques, and nine hundred public baths.

The Moors of Spain made marvellous progress in the arts and sciences. They invented a highly ornate style of architecture, still to be seen in the ruins of their castles ; and to them we owe the introduction into Europe of our present system of notation. In chemistry, astronomy, and medicine, they were acknowledged masters ; and at a time when there was a complete dearth of intellectual power among the other European nations, thousands of poets and historians adorned their literature.

After a while the Moorish sovereignty was subdivided, and the proud caliphate of Cordova became extinct in 1031.

Carlovingian Kings of France.

PEPIN the Short, 752-768 . . .	{ Deside'rius Lombard king; defeat-
CHARLEMAGNE, 768-814 . . .	{ ed by Charlemagne, 774.
LOUIS I., the Mild, 814-840 . . .	Egbert king of "England," 827.
CHARLES II., the Bald, 840-877 . . .	The empire divided, 843.
LOUIS II., 877-879 . . .	Alfonso III. king of Leon.
LOUIS III., 879-882 . . .	Alfred the Great, of England.
CARLOMAN, 882-884 . . .	Martin II. pope.
CHARLES the Fat, 884-888 . . .	Normans besiege Paris.
EUDES, Count of Paris, 888-898 . . .	Leo VI. emperor of the East.
CHARLES III., the Simple, 898-922 . . .	Rheims the royal residence.
ROBERT (brother of Eudes), 922 . . .	Harold Har'fager in Norway.
RUDOLF, of Burgundy, 922-936 . . .	Henry the Fowler, of Germany.
LOUIS IV., the Stranger, 936-954 . . .	Otho I., the Great, of Germany.
LOTHAIRE, 954-986 . . .	Hugh the Great, Duke of France.
LOUIS V., the Sluggard, 986-987 . . .	Hugh Capet rules France.



CHAPTER XXIV.

ERA OF ALFRED THE GREAT AND THE DANISH KINGS.

England under the Saxon Kings.—The hopes of peace which the people of England had entertained on the union of the seven Saxon kingdoms in 827 under Egbert, were soon dispelled by the appearance of the Danes upon their coast. King Egbert had served under Charlemagne, and the experience thus acquired enabled him to repulse these formidable invaders. After his death, they penetrated into the interior, captured the city of York,* and in 871 fought five battles with his grandson Ethelred. In the last of these Ethelred received a mortal wound. He left

* For places mentioned in the chapters on English history, see Map, p. 202.

his kingdom to his brother Alfred, then twenty-one years of age.

Alfred.—The education of this prince had been neglected, and he was twelve years old before he knew his letters. One day the queen, after exhibiting a handsomely illuminated Saxon poem to her children, offered it to the one who should first be able to read it. Alfred, the youngest, applied himself diligently, and won the prize. From that time his studies were his delight, and he became one of the most learned men of the age.

No sooner had Alfred ascended the throne than he was obliged to take the field against the Danes. After a protracted struggle, he was surprised and worsted by the enemy, and sought concealment in the hut of a herdsman. Here he was for a time employed as a servant, and was often chided by his mistress, who was ignorant of his rank. On his restoration to power, however, he forgot her ill-nature, and (the story says) rewarded her husband by giving him an education and making him Bishop of Winchester.

Meanwhile the Danes, finding that resistance had mostly ceased, grew careless ; and Alfred, in the disguise of a minstrel, entered their camp and sang before Guth'rum their chief. After having thus ascertained their strength, he assembled an army and defeated them with great slaughter. The Danish king, with his principal officers, embraced Christianity ; and many of his followers settled in England and gradually became civilized.

In peace Alfred devoted himself to the good of his people. He invited foreign artisans and scholars to England, encouraged the education of his subjects, and founded the University of Oxford. Laws were made for the protection of life and property, and the vessels he equipped to meet the Norsemen were the beginning of the English navy. As there were no clocks in the land, he measured

time by the burning of candles, on which were painted rings of different colors ; and to protect these from the wind, they were enclosed in cases of thin horn—whence the origin of lanterns.

Alfred died in 901, and was honored with the title of Great.

Saxon Successors of Alfred.—The most prominent of Alfred's successors were his warlike son, Edward the Elder ; Athelstan, his grandson, who crushed the power of the Danes, and made the Welsh tributary ; and Edgar the Peaceful, who never drew the sword against a foe, foreign or domestic. At this time England was so infested with wolves that Edgar made the yearly tax of the Welsh consist of 300 wolves' heads, instead of money and cattle. The result was that in four years these animals were all killed off.

One of the most powerful ecclesiastics of the period was Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, and afterward Archbishop of Canterbury. He lived for a while in a small cell, and spent his time in devotion, study, and working the metals. The peasants who dwelt near his abode were one night alarmed by unusual cries, which Dunstan told them, in the morning, were the howlings of the devil, whom, looking in at the window to tempt him, he had seized by the nose with his red-hot tongs.

In 975, Dunstan crowned Prince Edward, known as the Martyr because he was murdered at the instigation of his step-mother, to make room for her own son Ethelred. During the inglorious reign of the latter, the kingdom was repeatedly laid waste by the Danes, and from his being unprepared to meet them in battle Ethelred was called the Unready.

After several times purchasing peace from the invaders, Ethelred secretly ordered a massacre of all the Danes in the country (1002); and the sister of Sweyn (*swane*),

king of Denmark, was cut off among the rest. Sweyn retaliated by sweeping like a whirlwind through distracted England. He finally seated himself on the throne, Ethelred retiring for a time to Normandy. In a few weeks, however, Sweyn died, and Ethelred resumed the sceptre.

He reigned until 1016, when his warlike son, Edmund Ironside, battled with Sweyn's able son Canute for the crown of his fathers. On the treacherous murder of Edmund the same year, the whole realm fell to Canute.

Danish Kings.—Canute the Great endeavored to conciliate the English by his impartiality. His regard for the laws is shown by the following anecdote. Having in a moment of anger slain a soldier, he insisted on being tried and sentenced like any common offender. His judges decided that he should inflict his own penalty ; and, as murder was then punished by fine, he paid 360 talents.

Canute's dominions included Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. Sweden he conquered with the aid of Earl Godwin, who had risen from the position of an humble farmer. As the young rustic was driving his cattle one morning, he was met by a Danish captain, who, flying before the victorious Saxons, had lost his way and begged to be conducted to his vessels. Godwin acted as his guide, was well received in the Danish camp, and rose step by step until he became the most powerful noble in England.

Amid the cares of his extensive kingdom, Canute found time for pious works, built churches, and went on a pilgrimage to Rome. After his death in 1036, his sons Harold Harefoot and Hardicanute successively held the crown.

Edward the Confessor, after these Danish princes, ascended the throne, and was hailed with joy by the people as the restorer of the old Saxon line (1041). Having spent part of his life in Normandy, he introduced the language and customs of that country, and filled the court with his Norman favorites. This provoked a rebellion on

the part of Earl Godwin, and in the end the odious foreigners were outlawed.

Edward was persuaded by the monks that he could work miracles, and people affected with scrofula were brought to him to be touched and cured. The ceremony was called *touching for king's evil*, and was continued under his successors.—The principal foreign war in which Edward engaged was with Scotland.

Scotland.—The kingdom of Scotland resulted from a union of the Picts and Scots under one sovereign in 843. In Edward the Confessor's time, the throne was occupied by Duncan. But this prince was murdered by Macbeth, who seized the crown. Malcolm, the rightful heir, with aid from England, defeated the usurper, and regained his father's throne. He was killed, while besieging an English castle, by a knight who came out to surrender the keys on the point of his spear. As the king approached to receive them, the faithless knight thrust the spear into his eye, and was thenceforth called *Pierce-eye*—whence the noble family of *Percy* obtained its name.

Ireland.—Many of the Celtic tribes of this island had early embraced Christianity ; the conversion of the inhabitants was completed by St. Patrick in the fifth century. After the Saxons conquered Britain, the Irish made peace with them, instructed them in religion, and founded schools among them. St. Bridget flourished in the sixth century ; at this time the chief monastery in Ireland contained over a thousand monks.

The Danes, in their piratical expeditions, did not overlook this flourishing island ; but subdued the people, who were under different chiefs, and oppressed them with taxes. The master of every house was subjected to what was called the nose-tax, being required to pay an ounce of gold annually or have his nose cut off.

The Danes were at length overthrown by Brian Boru',



BRIAN BORU, KING OF IRELAND.

king of Munster, who fought with them twenty-five pitched battles. This Irish hero maintained a large army and a fleet of three hundred vessels. To test the order prevailing in his kingdom, he directed that a beautiful virgin should traverse it unprotected, carrying a ring of great value on a wand—which she did without molestation.

In the year 1000, Brian was elected monarch of all Ireland, and under his wise and vigorous administration the people enjoyed peace and plenty. Intercourse was also opened by ambassadors with the various courts of Europe. But Brian was killed in battle with the Danes (1014); and after his death Ireland was again divided and devastated by wars.

Kings of England, 827-1066.

SAXON KINGS.

Egbert, . . .	827-836.
Ethelwolf, . . .	836-858.
Ethelbald, . . .	858-860.
Ethelbert, . . .	860-866.
Ethelred, . . .	866-871.
Alfred the Great, . .	871-901.
Edward the Elder, . .	901-925.
Athelstan, . . .	925-941.
Edmund, . . .	941-946.
Edred, . . .	946-955.
Edwy, . . .	955-959.
Edgar the Peaceful, .	959-975.
Edward the Martyr, .	975-978.

SAXON KINGS (CONTINUED).

Ethelred the Unready,	978-1016.
Sweyn (Dane), . .	1013-1014.
Edmund Ironside, . .	1016.

DANISH KINGS.

Canute the Great, . .	1016-1035.
Harold Harefoot, . .	1035-1040.
Hardicanute, . . .	1040-1042.

SAXON LINE RESTORED.

Edward the Confessor,	1042-1066.
Harold, . . .	1066.

NORMAN CONQUEST.

1000 A. D.—Ethelred the Unready on the throne of England. Brian Boru elected monarch of all Ireland. Robert II., son of Hugh Capet, king of France. Sancho the Great, king of Navarre. Portugal under the Moors. Boleslas I. (*bo-les-lahs'*), the Brave, on the throne of Poland. Vladimir (*vlad'-e-meer*) the Great, ruler of Russia. Red Er'ic, sailing from Greenland, discovers the main-land of America, landing in Vinland (Rhode Island and Massachusetts). Mahmoud invades India.

CHAPTER XXV.

ENGLAND UNDER THE NORMAN KINGS.

(1066-1154.)

Norman Conquest.—Edward the Confessor died childless in 1066; and the day he was buried, Earl Godwin's son Harold, the last of the Saxon kings, was crowned. Edward had promised to leave the throne to his kinsman, the Duke of Normandy, and Harold himself had sworn (though, as he claimed, under compulsion) to support the pretensions of the latter.

The new king's reign was soon disturbed by an invasion headed by his brother Tostig and the king of Norway. When the hostile armies were drawn up ready for battle, Harold offered his brother wealth and a part of his kingdom if he would withdraw from the combat. "If I accept these terms," Tostig answered, "what will you give my ally, the king of Norway?" "Seven feet of English soil, or, as he is very tall, perhaps a little more," was the reply. This ended the conference, and in the battle which followed Harold was successful, and his brother with the Norwegian king was slain.

The rejoicings of the victorious army were interrupted by tidings that William of Normandy had landed in England with a large force, to support his claim to the throne. Harold met the invaders, October 14, 1066, his birthday, on the field of Hastings. William had three horses killed under him and lost 15,000 of his troops; but the English army was cut to pieces and Harold slain. This victory established the Norman power in England.

William the Conqueror was crowned on Christmas-day, 1066. The English people, however, were not entirely subdued; they broke out into insurrections, and at last the king, determined to strike terror into their hearts,

marched northward, burned their towns, and put thousands to the sword.

William I. enriched his Norman followers with the treasures and lands of the Saxons. He repaid the pope for sanctioning his conquest by extending the papal authority over the English church, and sent to Rome the tribute called Peter's Pence—a penny a year for every household. It was in his reign that the Domesday-Book was compiled, containing an account of all the landed and personal property in the kingdom, and the number of men able to bear arms.

William introduced the Norman language and manners. French was taught in the schools, spoken at court, and employed exclusively in the tribunals of law. He could not, however, compel its use by the lower classes. They obstinately adhered to their own vernacular; and not till their prejudices against their conquerors had been softened by the lapse of fifty years, were they willing to modify their own tongue and enlarge its vocabulary by drawing on the language of the Normans. From this time changes were rapidly made; and the grafting of numerous elements from the versatile Norman French upon the homely but nervous Saxon stock, produced our present English (about 1350).

Among the oppressive institutions of this monarch were the Forest Laws and the Curfew. William was especially fond of hunting; and not content with sixty-eight deer-friths, besides parks and chases, he made what was called the New Forest, by laying waste a tract of thirty square miles, demolishing churches, and destroying hundreds of homes. The Curfew was a bell rung at eight o'clock, as a signal for extinguishing lights and fires.

In William's time, England was covered with strong castles, and the Tower of London was commenced. The



ANGLO-NORMAN CASTLE.

Normans called themselves after their castles and fortified towns, and thus introduced surnames.

William the Conqueror died in 1087, leaving Norman-

dy to his son Robert, England to William, and to Henry, his youngest son, £5,000.

William Rufus (*red*) hastened to England on the death of his father, to take possession of the crown and royal treasures. He was brave in war, but licentious, passionate, and tyrannical. He enlarged the royal forests, and made hunting therein without permission a capital offence. In 1100, while pursuing his favorite sport in the New Forest, William Rufus was killed by an arrow discharged by an unknown hand.

Henry I. was crowned at London on the third day after his brother's death, to which, as he made no effort to discover its author, he is supposed to have been a party. In 1101, Robert, his elder brother, to whom the crown rightfully belonged, having returned from a Crusade in Palestine, landed with an army in England ; but, on the promise of 3,000 marks annually and the cession of all the castles that Henry held in Normandy, he consented to forego his claim.

Henry afterward, however, on frivolous pretexts invaded Normandy, defeated Robert, took possession of his dominions, and sent him a prisoner to England. Robert having subsequently attempted to escape from confinement, the king ordered his eyes to be burned out ; and in blindness and misery the poor prisoner suffered for the remainder of his life,—a period of twenty-eight years.

In consequence of Henry's successes in Normandy, the barons of that country were obliged to acknowledge him as their duke, and his son William as his successor. But Prince William, returning to England with three hundred nobles on the fastest vessel of the fleet, was lost. Wine having been freely distributed among the sailors by their royal passenger, they became intoxicated, and ran the vessel on a rock. William was hurried into a boat, and would have escaped, had not his sister, who had been left behind,

cried for aid. Hearing her voice, he ordered the boat to be rowed back to the ship, when those on board leaped in, and all were drowned. The king was never afterward seen to smile.

Henry died in 1135, leaving his kingdom to his daughter Matilda.

Stephen, Earl of Blois (*blwah*), however, a favorite nephew of the deceased king, notwithstanding he had solemnly sworn to support Matilda, took advantage of her absence in Normandy to seize the crown. Matilda was not afraid to assert her rights by force of arms, and for eighteen years England was desolated by civil war. Whole towns were depopulated; in some parts a man might ride a day without meeting a human being. Numerous castles were erected by lawless nobles, who set at defiance not only the authority of their sovereign, but every principle of justice and humanity.

In this protracted struggle Stephen was for the most part successful, though for a short time he was a prisoner, and Matilda (or Maud) was recognized as queen in part of the kingdom.

At last, Prince Henry, Matilda's son, arrived from Normandy (1153) and was supported by a powerful party. A battle was prevented by negotiations, and it was finally agreed that Stephen should wear the crown during the remainder of his life, but that Henry should be his successor.

During these wars, Matilda was once so hard pressed that, to escape her enemies, she caused herself to be dressed in grave-clothes and laid in a coffin, which was carried out on men's shoulders to a place of safety.

Literature and the Arts.—During the reign of Henry I., Geoffrey (*jef're*) of Monmouth published his Chronicles of the Britons, rather curious as a collection of old legends than valuable as a history. To this Geoffrey we owe the

stories of the sorcerer Mer'lin, and of Arthur, the famous mythical king who lived in Wales at the time of the Saxon invasion, and his chivalrous knights of the Round Table, who went out from his court to protect the helpless, liberate the enchanted, and encounter blood-thirsty ogres and malicious dwarfs. Of an entirely different character, as regards veracity and accuracy, is the History of England by William of Malmesbury (*mahms' ber-e*), a contemporary of Geoffrey (1095-1143).

Poetry, music, and architecture, were diligently cultivated. Abbeys and churches were erected on all sides, and adorned with paintings and statues. Monks were the principal architects and builders of these edifices. The monks also constructed organs, the chief if not the only instruments used in worship, and spent much time in illuminating manuscripts,—an art that now attained great perfection.

About this time, the manufacture of cloth first received attention in England. Paper made from rags became common, and parchment went out of use. Agriculture was greatly improved by the Normans; the land was drained, and the wastes produced by the Danish wars were restored to fertility. Numerous apple-orchards were planted. Stone bridges were first built.

Norman Kings of England.

KINGS OF ENGLAND.	CONTEMPORARIES.
WILLIAM I., the Conqueror, 1066-1087.	{ Philip I., of France; Henry IV., of Ger- many; Gregory VII., pope.
WILLIAM II., Rufus, 1087-1100.	{ Philip I., of France; Alfonso VI., of Spain; Henry IV., of Germany.
HENRY I., Beauclerc, 1100-1135.	{ Philip I. and Louis VI., of France; Henry IV., Henry V., Lothaire II., of Germany.
STEPHEN, of Blois, (MAUD), 1135-1154.	{ Louis VI. and VII., of France; Lothaire II., Conrad III., Frederick I., of Germany.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.—CHIVALRY.

The Feudal System.—We have alluded to the influence which the German element, largely infused into European society by the successful incursions of the northern tribes, exerted on its subsequent condition. Most apparent was this in the establishment of the Feudal System, which took root along with these tribes in every country that they overran.

On becoming masters of Rome and its dependencies, the barbarian leaders rewarded the chiefs who followed them with large tracts of the conquered territory, on condition of their assistance in time of war. These highest officers apportioned out the lands thus acquired to their subordinates, and these again to theirs, on the same condition of military service. Thus arose in the community a succession of classes, bound together by the common obligation of homage and service on the one side and protection on the other—from the *suzerain* or *liege lord*, through a line of *vassals*, down to the very *serfs*, who were little better than cattle, and were transferred along with the soil they tilled.

Lands thus granted were called in old French *feudes*, and hence *feudalism* derived its name. It attained its height in continental Europe in the tenth century, and was introduced into Great Britain at the time of the Norman Conquest. Europe was in this way divided into hundreds of dukedoms, earldoms, etc., the lords of which formed a powerful aristocracy that limited, and in many cases overshadowed, the authority of the kings themselves.

Of such a system, grave evils were the inevitable consequence. The great lords had both civil and criminal jurisdiction over their feudes or fiefs, and too often exer-

cised it without regard to justice. Secure in their frowning strongholds, they could set their sovereign at defiance, and were in effect independent of his control. Under such circumstances, there could be no centralization of power. A kingdom, instead of being a unit under one head, was rather a patchwork of separate principalities. Quarrels between the nobles were incessant, and the sword was recognized as the only arbiter. Anarchy prevailed; might made right; there was no encouragement to industry, and the people were familiarized with bloodshed.

Ignorance and Superstition.—During these centuries of violence, ignorance was the rule; even kings, in many instances, were unable to read or write. What little learning there was, belonged to priests and monks, and was locked up in Latin, which was the language of scholars and the church.

Books were so scarce that none but the rich could buy them; we read of a countess giving two hundred sheep, besides wheat, rye, and millet, for a single volume. Parchment was so dear that the minute style of writing was practised; a sheet eight inches by six is still extant, which contains the five books of Moses, with other parts of the Old Testament.

With ignorance, superstition went hand in hand. Implicit faith was placed in stories of giants and magicians, dragons and enchanted palaces, drawn from the treasures of Arabic romance. A belief that the world would be destroyed in the year 1000 spread a panic throughout Christian countries. The fields were left untilled, prisoners were released, foes reconciled, and men stood waiting to hear the Judgment-trump. An eclipse was sufficient to break up in consternation a great army of Otho I.

Chivalry.—In the midst of these dark days, some French nobles, filled with pity for the wretchedness they saw around them, united to remedy existing evils. They

pledged themselves to defend the weak and become the champions of the oppressed ; the church blessed their undertaking ; and thus was born an institution which is the leading feature of European civilization in the Middle Ages.

It was called CHIVALRY, from the *chevaliers* who enrolled themselves in its support, and who finally constituted the order of Knighthood, to which admission was obtained by a formal ceremony. From France this institution rapidly spread to England, Spain, Germany, and Italy, in all which countries the Teutonic race was now established.

All persons of gentle blood, except those designed for the church, followed the profession of arms, and were supposed to pass through three grades. In early youth they lived as pages with nobles of high rank ; next as esquires they attached themselves to some individual knight, whom they were bound to obey, to attend in battle, and serve with their very lives in case of need ; and finally they were themselves promoted to the rank of knights.

For this dignity the youth was prepared by a long course of training. He was taught by severe exercises to endure fatigue, thirst, and hunger, to run great distances, to turn somersets in heavy armor, to wield his weapons with agility and skill, and to manage his fiery barb with grace and dexterity.

At twenty-one he was made a knight, usually during some great festival. He fitted himself for the impressive ceremony by fasting and prayer, and was admonished of the duties of knighthood by the priest who consecrated his sword to religion. He next took the oath of chivalry, to be true to God and the ladies, to protect the weak, defend the church, and shed his last drop of blood in behalf of a companion in arms. His spurs and armor were then fastened on, and the officiating lord concluded the cere-

mony by striking him on the neck, as he knelt, with the flat of his sword, saying, "In the name of God, I dub thee knight; be faithful, bold, and fortunate." Knighthood was sometimes conferred with less ceremony on the field of battle, as a guerdon for valiant conduct.

In the days of chivalry maidens also received training, but it was chiefly in household and religious duties. It was expected, besides, that they should acquire some knowledge of surgery, so as to treat the wounds which the knights received in their behalf. The singing of love-ditties and playing on the lute constituted the ornamental part of their education.

ARMOR OF THE KNIGHT.—The knight wore a helmet and armor of steel; his weapons were shield, dagger, sword, lance, battle-axe, and mace. He was distinguished in battle by some device emblazoned on his shield or armor. He took special pride in his horse, which was protected by a breastplate and iron mask. When mounted, he was invulnerable; but if he was unhorsed, the weight of his armor made him helpless, and its joints were seldom proof against the dagger of an enemy.

The charge of a body of knights on foot-soldiers was generally irresistible; it could be withstood only by the English bowmen, whose arrows, discharged with unerring aim, tried every joint till they found entrance at some weak spot. When two bands of horsemen charged each other, the waving plumes and banners, the war-cries, the splintering lances, and the clash of armor, made the encounter terrible.

THE KNIGHTLY CHARACTER.—Generosity, loyalty, truth, gallantry, valor, fidelity to a brother in arms, and a keen thirst for glory, may be stated as the essential attributes of the knightly character.

Its leading feature, perhaps, was its respectful exaltation and love of woman. Every knight selected some

lady to be the mistress of his heart, and maintained at the point of the lance her superior beauty and virtue. In the tender days of his pagehood he first learned the lesson of love and reverence, cherishing as of inestimable value the slightest favor from his lady's hand. The depth of this feeling is illustrated in a German romance, which represents a devoted page as opening a wound in his bosom, to lay a gold thread which his mistress had given him as near as possible to his heart.

His lady's presence was the greatest incentive to valourous deeds that a knight could have. He wore her scarf, ribbon, or glove, on his helmet, and in her name would make the most extravagant vows and swear to perform impossible feats. And sometimes her caprice would exact from him achievements which taxed both strength and courage to the utmost.

We read, for instance, that at a German court some knights and ladies were viewing two lions confined in an enclosure, when one of the ladies threw in her glove and commanded her lover to recover it. He leaped in, threw his mantle over the beasts as they rushed toward him, picked up the glove, and sprung out in safety ; but even his loyalty could not blind him to his lady's unreasonable caprice, and he immediately renounced one who could wantonly subject her true knight to such danger.

The most whimsical vows were sometimes made, and once made had to be performed to the letter. Some knights of Edward III. bound up one eye with a bandage, and vowed not to remove it until for their mistresses' sake they had performed "dreadful derring deeds" in France. We also read of an esquire of Spain, who fastened a piece of iron to his leg, and vowed to endure the pain till he had won renown by feats of chivalry.

Other prominent elements of the knightly character were courtesy, self-denial, respect for the feelings of

others, and a nice sense of honor. Nor was hospitality the least of its virtues. The castle of every lord was open to travellers, and especially to minstrels, who wandered about from place to place, singing the compositions of the *troubadours*, or poets of Provence (*pro-von's'*) in southern France. The minstrels were always welcome at court and castle, the burden of their strains being generally the beauty of the ladies, the sports of chivalry, notable deeds of arms, or the memory of fallen knights.

While chivalry greatly ameliorated the rude manners of the age, and while out of it grew that spirit of gentleness and deference to woman which characterizes the intercourse of modern society, it must be admitted that the duties of knighthood were too often forgotten by those who had assumed its vows. Errant knights were sometimes, as an old writer remarks, arrant knaves. For such, particularly if guilty of cowardice, falsehood, or blasphemy, degradation from rank was the punishment. Their horses' tails were severed close to the body, and they were dragged to a scaffold, where their spurs were cut off, and their swords and armor broken. Finally, they were arrayed in grave-clothes, and a funeral service was read over them, as dead to the honors of knighthood.

DECLINE OF CHIVALRY.—As learning revived, chivalry gradually declined, till finally it received its death-blow from the invention of gunpowder. The weakest vassal with a musket in his hand was a match for his steel-clad suzerain. The last flickerings of the ideal chivalry portrayed in the old romances were extinguished by the ridicule put upon its extravagances by the Spanish humorist Cervan'tes, in his inimitable "Don Quixote."

Amusements of the Middle Ages.—In the intervals of war, hunting and hawking were favorite amusements. Even the clergy were excessively fond of field-sports. The monks of St. Denis excused their love of these diver-

sions to Charlemagne on the ground that the flesh of game was good for the sick and the skins were useful in binding their books. Five hundred years later, we are told, the Archbishop of York hunted from parish to parish with a pack of hounds and a train of two hundred persons.

In hawking trained falcons were used, and the heron was the favorite bird of chase. On finding itself pursued, the heron would rise by short gyrations until almost lost in the clouds ; while the falcons, unhooded and slipped by their keepers as soon as the game was sprung, soared to a still greater height and swooped down on the quarry with prodigious force. The heron's sole defence was its long, pointed beak, on which it sought to impale the falcons in their descent. Ladies, as well as lords, found great delight in this amusement.

TOURNAMENTS.—But the crowning diversions in the times of chivalry were the Tournaments,—encounters between knights with blunted swords and headless lances, held on great occasions, such as marriages or coronations, with a gorgeousness of feudal pageantry that can hardly be imagined. The lists were surrounded with tents and galleries, decorated with cloth of gold. Wealth and art taxed their ingenuity for the splendid apparelling of ladies, knights, and even minstrels, who gathered from far and near to lend brilliancy to the scene.

Amid the trumpets' clang, urging every man to do his devoir, the knights with lances poised met in the middle of the lists. He who unhorsed his opponent was the victor, and at the end of the fray the successful cavalier received the prize from the “queen of beauty and love,”—an honor valued little less than victory in the field of battle.

Fatal accidents frequently occurred ; many nobles and princes lost their lives in these dangerous exercises. In a tournament at Chalons so many were killed that it was called the little war of Chalons.



HAWKING IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

MIRACLE PLAYS.—The drama of the Middle Ages found its development in religious and allegorical plays, called Miracles, Moralities, and Mysteries, which took the place of secular plays long proscribed by the church. The Miracles were based on Bible stories, the lives of the saints, or the ceremonies of the Christian faith. The Passion Play, representing various scenes in our Saviour's life, was one of the most popular of these performances. Among its characters were the three persons of the Trinity, angels and archangels, apostles and devils, together with Herod and his court.

Social Life.—The nobles lived in strongholds, generally erected on heights, surrounded by *moats*, or ditches, and almost impregnable when their massive walls were properly manned. Loop-holes for the convenience of the bowmen served instead of windows, and apertures in the roof or walls allowed the smoke to escape ; for glass windows and chimneys were not generally used till the fourteenth century.

At dinner the huge oaken table, extending the whole length of the great hall, was covered with joints of meat, which were followed by courses of fowl and fish. The baron sat on the dais, or platform, at the head, while his guests and retainers were ranged below according to their rank. Before 1400, forks, cups, and saucers, were rarities, and platters were not over-abundant. One bowl or tankard would sometimes do service for a dozen, and it was always courtesy for a knight and lady to eat off the same plate. The dinner generally lasted three hours, the pauses being filled up by the minstrels and jesters.

The comforts of modern times were unknown. The houses were poorly furnished. Straw pallets were the only beds, and even these were scarce ; logs answered for pillows. One of the finest castles in England contained seven beds, but no chairs. Straw took the place of car-

pets, and King Philip Augustus, of France, thought he was doing a great thing when for the good of his soul he ordered that the old straw from his palace-floor should be given to a hospital for the poor. Tallow-candles were first made about 1275 ; before that the houses were lighted with splinters of wood, used as torches.

The working classes had little encouragement. Agriculture was at a low ebb, for there was no knowing when the crops would be swept off by some marauding party. Large factories there were none ; the barons, for their convenience, kept artisans of different kinds among their retainers. Tanners were the principal tradesmen, as much of the dress was made of leather. Robbery was so common that it was unsafe to transport merchandise, and consequently there was but little commerce.

Money was very valuable during the Middle Ages. The wages of laboring men in England varied from three to five pence a day ; the yearly pay of a farm-hand amounted to 18s. 4d., with board. For one of the middle class, £5 a year was a good living.

The administration of law was very loose. When crimes were punished at all, it was by fines. Every offence had its fixed price. In England, a king's life was valued at £1,300 ; a wound in the face, at 2s. ; while lopping off an ear cost 30s., to pay for the disgrace involved in the loss of that appendage.

The manufacture of linen having mostly ceased, woollen was the common material for the dress of both sexes ; to its constant and uncleanly use the prevalence of leprosy has been attributed by some. The ladies fastened their dresses with miniature skewers instead of pins, which were the invention of a later age.

Fantastic fashions were not uncommon ; among these were long-toed shoes, invented by Fulk, Count of An'jou, to hide an excrescence on one of his feet. The toes were

so long as to be fastened to the knees with gold chains, and were ornamented at the extremity with the representation of a bird or some other device. They soon came into general favor, but were found quite unhandy if one fell, as it was impossible to rise without assistance.

Among the inventions of these ages may be mentioned that of musical notes in the eleventh century. Clocks with weights and wheels were used in certain monasteries, but they were great curiosities.

1100 A. D.—Henry I. succeeds William Rufus on the English throne. Alexius Comnenus I. emperor of the East. First Crusade just completed. Godfrey of Bouillon (*boo-yon'*) king of Jerusalem. Scandinavian colonies flourishing in Greenland. Ab-e-lard', a famous French scholastic divine, twenty-one years old. Gleams of light beginning to relieve the midnight darkness.



CHAPTER XXVII.

ACCESSION OF THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

(1154-1272.)

Henry II., the son of Queen Matilda and Geoffrey Plantag'enet of Anjou, succeeded Stephen in 1154. The name Plantagenet (*plante de genêt*, broom-plant) probably came from the device of a sprig of broom worn by an early Count of Anjou. In addition to England, Henry inherited important provinces in France; and, by marrying Eleanor of Poitou (*pwah-too'*) and Aquitaine, he acquired others, so that his authority was recognized in the west of France from the Channel to the Pyrenees.

Immediately after his accession, Henry labored to remedy the evils which the late civil strife had brought upon the country. The castles of the factious nobles, long the



terror of the land, were destroyed. He next determined to limit the power of the church ; and to carry out his designs, he made Thomas à Becket, his favorite chancellor, Archbishop of Canterbury.

While chancellor, Becket's pomp and retinue surpassed anything ever before seen in England. When sent on an embassy to France, he so astonished the people with his magnificence that they shouted, "How great must the king of England be, when this is only the chancellor!" But after Becket was made archbishop, he at once abandoned his luxurious habits, exchanged his ermine for sackcloth, and stood forth as the champion of the church.

For eight years he was engaged in a violent quarrel with Henry, who at last, in a moment of anger, rashly exclaimed, "Of all the cowards who eat my bread, is there not one who will rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four knights thereupon set out for Canterbury, and following the archbishop into the cathedral struck him down before the altar.

On hearing of Becket's murder, Henry, who had never intended it, was filled with sorrow, and for three days refused food. Becket was regarded as a martyr and canonized; thousands made pilgrimages to his tomb. King Henry himself walked barefoot into the city of Canterbury, and kneeling in the cathedral, confessed his sins, receiving five lashes from each bishop present and three from every monk.

WARS OF HENRY II.—In 1157, Henry compelled the Welsh to acknowledge his supremacy. He next crossed swords with the king of France, whom he besieged in the city of Toulouse, his wife Eleanor laying claim to the duchy. Foiled by the valor of the French knights, he finally retired,—not, however, until he had made some minor conquests. Ireland was at this time divided into several kingdoms, and Henry availed himself of the disputes of the different chiefs to reduce a large part of the island.

The ingratitude of his sons cast a blighting shadow on King Henry's life. Supported by their mother, three

of the princes took up arms against him. Louis of France with his barons lent them aid, and William of Scotland joined the league.

The Scottish king was made captive, and, to obtain his liberty, was obliged to kneel before Henry and swear fealty to him as liege lord. After many reverses, the princes too for a time submitted. But they were soon again in rebellion ; and finally, in 1189, Henry died of a broken heart.

Even when dying, he was hunted from place to place ; and when he learned that his idolized John had turned against him, he invoked upon his sons the vengeance of Heaven. Scarcely were his eyes closed when his attendants hastily departed, carrying off everything that was valuable, and even stripping the corpse. Richard, his oldest surviving son, succeeded.

The tale of Fair Ros'amond belongs to this reign. She was a favorite of the king's, for whom he had provided a secret residence in a beautiful bower. The queen, obtaining a clew to Rosamond's abode, suddenly appeared before her with a bowl of poison in one hand and a dagger in the other, and bade her choose between them. Rosamond, after vainly entreating the queen to spare her life, took the poison, and fell dead in her beautiful bower. According to other accounts she retired to a convent, and endeavored by a holy life to make amends for her former faults.

Richard I., the Lion-hearted.—At the time of Richard's coronation, the Jews, who to purchase his favor had hastened to the capital from every county in England with valuable presents, were attacked by the populace of London and murdered in the streets, while their effects were seized and their houses burned. Similar atrocities were committed elsewhere. Five hundred men belonging to this persecuted race, who had taken refuge in the castle

of York, besieged by a tumultuous mob, resolved to destroy themselves and their treasures. The castle was fired; and as the flames rose around them, they put to death their wives and children, and then stabbed themselves.

Hardly was Richard crowned when his adventurous spirit and thirst for glory led him to engage in an expedition to Palestine, to deliver Jerusalem from the hands of the Mohammedans. To raise the necessary funds, he sold the royal domains and offices of state, extorted exorbitant sums, and declared that he would even part with London itself if he could find a purchaser.

In Palestine Richard won a world-wide reputation for bravery. On one occasion he returned from battle bristling with arrows, like a cushion stuck full of needles. Arab mothers would frighten their children into good behavior with the name of Richard; and, if a horse suddenly started from the way, his rider would exclaim, "Dost thou think King Richard is in that bush?"

Possessed of unequalled strength and skill in arms, fearless, chivalric, and generous, Richard was yet a rapacious, passionate, and overbearing king. His reign was ruinous to England on account of his absence in the Holy Land. His barons, thus left without a master, became turbulent; Robin Hood, "the most gentle of thieves," with his bold outlaws of Sherwood Forest, was the terror of the rich; and John, turning traitor, endeavored to obtain the throne for himself. The king's timely return to England alone defeated his brother's plans.

Richard was mortally wounded by an arrow in 1199, while besieging the fortress of a vassal, who had discovered a hidden treasure and refused to surrender the whole to him. The archer who discharged the fatal shaft was captured, but generously released by the king. A less forgiving officer flayed him alive after Richard's death.

John Lackland, so called because his father had given the royal dominions to his brothers, intending to make him Lord of Ireland, succeeded Richard, although the crown rightfully belonged to Arthur, son of his elder brother Geoffrey. John got possession of the young prince, and is believed to have stabbed him with his own hand. The report of this murder excited universal odium against the king.

John's reign was full of misfortunes. Philip Augustus, of France, deprived him of his continental possessions; Pope Innocent III., after a protracted contention, obliged him to take an oath of fealty, and to declare that he held the crown as a vassal from the pope his master; and his own barons constrained him to resign the prerogatives of his ancestors and sign the *MAGNA CHARTA*, the great "key-stone of English liberty." A paroxysm of fury followed this last act; and John, throwing himself on the ground, gnawed sticks and straw in his rage.

This famous charter benefited not only the nobles but also the people. It confirmed the liberties of the church, insured the prompt administration of law, and in various ways protected the property and rights of the subject.

King John was the most vicious and unprincipled sovereign that ever wore the English crown. His character was a compound of cowardice, treachery, licentiousness, and cruelty. He once demanded an immense sum from a rich Jew, and ordered one of his teeth to be pulled every day till it was paid. The unfortunate man suffered the loss of seven double teeth before he consented to the extortion. — John tortured and starved his captives in dungeons, and hanged his queen's favorites over her bed.

Henry III.—The reign of Henry III., son of John (1216–1272), was distinguished for the confirmation of the *Magna Charta*, and the assembling of the first regular



KING JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CHARTA.

Parliament in which the counties, cities, and boroughs, were represented.

Henry was a well-disposed man, but a feeble monarch. He was unable to control the factious barons, who rebelled under the Earl of Leicester (*les'ter*), and took Henry and his son Edward prisoners. But the prince escaped, defeated Leicester, and restored his father to the throne.

Henry III. was a patron of art and literature, and was skilled in the "gay science of the troubadour." During his long reign of fifty-six years, England advanced in wealth and prosperity.

Contemporaneous Sovereigns.

KINGS OF ENGLAND.

CONTEMPORARIES.

HENRY II., 1154-1189.	{ Malcolm IV. and William the Lion, of Scotland; Louis VII. and Philip Augustus, of France.
RICHARD I., 1189-1199.	{ Philip Augustus, of France; Frederick I., Henry VI., and Philip, of Germany.
JOHN, 1199-1216.	{ Philip Augustus, of France; Philip and Otho IV., of Germany; Innocent III., pope.
HENRY III., 1216-1272.	{ Philip Augustus, Louis VIII., Louis IX., Philip III., of France; Otho IV., Frederick II., Con- rad IV., of Germany.



CHAPTER XXVIII.

PERIOD OF THE CRUSADES.

Origin of the Crusades.—Ever since the establishment of Christianity, Palestine, as the scene of our Saviour's earthly career, had been invested with a peculiarly sacred character; and pilgrimages thither, at first undertaken from interest in tracing his hallowed footsteps, came to be regarded in later days as meritorious acts.

While Jerusalem belonged to the Saracens, pilgrims were looked upon as a source of profit, and their coming was encouraged ; Haroun al Raschid even sent to Charlemagne the keys of the Holy Sepulchre. But toward the close of the eleventh century Palestine was conquered by the Turks, a Tartar race from beyond the Caspian, who had embraced the Mohammedan faith and erected a powerful monarchy in Persia and the adjacent regions.

From this time pilgrims, as well as the native Christians, were subjected to savage indignities. Gold was exacted from all who would enter Jerusalem, and those who could not pay were driven with revilings from the gates, often to perish on the highway. Stories of these outrages and the insults offered to the Christian religion were spread far and wide through Europe.

At length in the year 1093, Peter the Hermit, a French monk, visited the tomb of the Saviour on a pilgrimage. Excited by what he there saw and suffered, he determined to remedy these evils ; and on his return he preached with fiery eloquence through Italy and France the deliverance of the Holy Land from the unbelievers. Crowds followed him along the road-sides ; shops were deserted ; business was forgotten ; princes and peasants were alike thrilled by his denunciations, as by an electric spark ; men listened to his words as to the voice of Heaven ; all Christendom was stirred to its very depths.

At the Council of Clermont in 1095, Pope Urban II. addressed an immense assemblage and urged them to enlist in the holy war, promising to all who perished absolution from their sins and the crown of martyrdom. "God wills it !" burst from the multitude, and thousands on the spot offered themselves for the sacred service, each warrior assuming a red cross * as a pledge of his enlistment.

* In old French, *crois*—in Latin, *cruz* ; hence the term CRUSADE, applied to the Holy Wars.

First Crusade (1096–1099).—Early in the spring of 1096, an undisciplined horde of about 300,000 men, women, and children, led by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Mon eyless, a valiant but poor knight, set out for Palestine. Making their way eastward in different bands, without supplies, they laid waste the Christian countries through which they passed, and massacred the unfortunate Jews with whom they met. Great numbers were cut off on the way by the outraged nations, and those who reached Asia did not long stand before the arrows of the Moslems.

Meanwhile a disciplined army was organizing. Godfrey of Bouillon (*boo-yon'*), the most distinguished knight of the age, Robert of Normandy, and Bo'hemond son of Guiscard, were the prominent leaders. This expedition numbered 600,000 fighting men, one-sixth of whom were steel-clad knights.

We must now pause for a moment, to consider the condition of the Eastern Empire. Russian invaders, who had descended on Constantinople in thousands of canoes hollowed out of the trunks of trees, had been destroyed by the terrible Greek fire ;* the Bulgarians, south of the Danube, had been subjugated, and the Saracens driven from the eastern provinces. Somewhat later, however, a more formidable enemy had appeared. Myriads of Turkish horsemen swept across the frontier, took prisoner one of the Byzantine monarchs, robbed the empire of province after province, and at last established themselves at the very gates of Constantinople.

* A composition of bitumen, pitch, and sulphur, which, ignited by its passage through the air, could not be extinguished by water. It was poured from caldrons, projected in fire-balls, or discharged through long copper tubes from the prows of vessels. An hour's fight would cover the sea with this blazing oil, and give it the appearance of a sheet of flame. It is described as approaching its victims in the form of fiery dragons, working its way between the joints of their armor, and causing their death with insufferable torture.

Alexius Comne'nus I., who succeeded to the imperial dignity in 1081, trembled for the safety of his capital, and supplicated the European nations for protection. But when he saw the innumerable host of Crusaders, he feared them more than the Turks; and instead of co-operating with them against the common foe, he sought in every way to embarrass their movements. The knights, however, laughed at the effeminacy of the Greeks; a French baron even presumed to ascend the throne and sit beside the emperor.

At length Alexius rid himself of the Crusaders by furnishing them with vessels to cross to Asia. Their first efforts were directed against Nicæa (see Map, p. 156). This city having been besieged and taken, Antioch was next attacked; after months, during which the Christians suffered terribly from sickness and want of food, it was captured by the aid of a traitor. The women of the besieging force displayed heroic endurance in the midst of the severest trials; even the children manifested a military spirit, and fought frequent battles with the Saracen boys, armed with sticks and stones. In one of his engagements, the stalwart Godfrey is said to have cleft asunder a Turk from head to saddle, with a single blow of his sword.

The army of the Cross captured Antioch, only to be in turn besieged there by a greatly superior force. When reduced to the last extremity, the soldiers, elevating as their standard a lance-head which had been discovered by a priest and purported to be the one that had pierced the Saviour's side, rushed through the gates and dispersed the Mohammedans. The sovereignty of Antioch was bestowed upon Bo'hemond.

In May, 1099, with their vast force thinned out to 21,500 fighting-men, the Crusaders left Antioch and marched in the direction of Jerusalem, then in possession of the caliph of Egypt, who had restored the authority of

the Saracens in Palestine. When the holy city, long the object of their dreams, appeared in the distance, they burst into rapturous tears, thanksgivings, and shouts of exultation. An ill-concerted attack made soon after their arrival was repulsed by the Saracens, and it was forty days before the crescent was torn from the battlements.

In the transports of victory the soldiers of the Cross forgot the principles of their faith; 70,000 infidels were



put to the sword, the unoffending Jews were burned in their synagogue, and the knights boasted that they rode up to their horses' knees in Saracen blood. Godfrey in vain tried to restrain his followers. After the slaughter was over, with bared heads and feet, amid the anthems

of their priests, they ascended Mt. Calvary, "kissed the stone which had covered the Saviour of the world, and bedewed his sepulchre with tears of joy."

Kingdom of Jerusalem.—A king of Jerusalem was now to be elected, and the choice fell on Godfrey of Bouillon; but, refusing to wear an earthly diadem where his Redeemer had been crowned with thorns, he assumed the title of Defender of the Holy Sepulchre. He died after reigning a year, and the crown fell to Baldwin his brother.

The monarchs of Jerusalem were engaged in constant

wars with their Mohammedan neighbors. In these they were greatly aided by two religious military orders—the Hos'pitallers, distinguished by a white cross on their black habits, whose unceasing warfare with the infidels will bring them again to our notice at a later date ; and the Templars, or Red-cross Knights, whose battle-cry became famous throughout Christendom.

Second Crusade (1147-1149).—Owing to successes on the part of the Saracens, and a fear that Jerusalem would again fall into their hands, after several minor movements in the same direction, a second great Crusade was undertaken by Conrad III. of Germany and Louis VII. of France. Conrad was accompanied to the Holy Land by 70,000 knights, and a band of ladies clad in armor, whose chief, from her gilt spurs and buskins, was called the Golden-footed Dame.

Moved by the eloquent St. Bernard's exhortations and a desire to atone for an act of cruelty committed in one of his wars, Louis assumed the cross with thousands of his subjects. He also was attended by a band of ladies attired as knights, headed by Queen Eleanor.

The advance of the invading host was embarrassed in every way by the treacherous Emperor of the East. Poisoned food was sold them ; the Germans were betrayed by false guides into the hands of the Turks ; and the French force was almost annihilated. Nothing whatever was accomplished by this expedition.

Third Crusade (1189-1192).—In 1187 Sal'adin, sultan of Egypt and Syria, captured Jerusalem and subverted the Latin kingdom ; hence the third Crusade. At its head were the most powerful monarchs of Europe—Richard I. of England, Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, and Philip Augustus of France, the successor of Louis VII.

Frederick lost the flower of his army in the deserts of Asia, and was drowned in attempting to cross a swollen

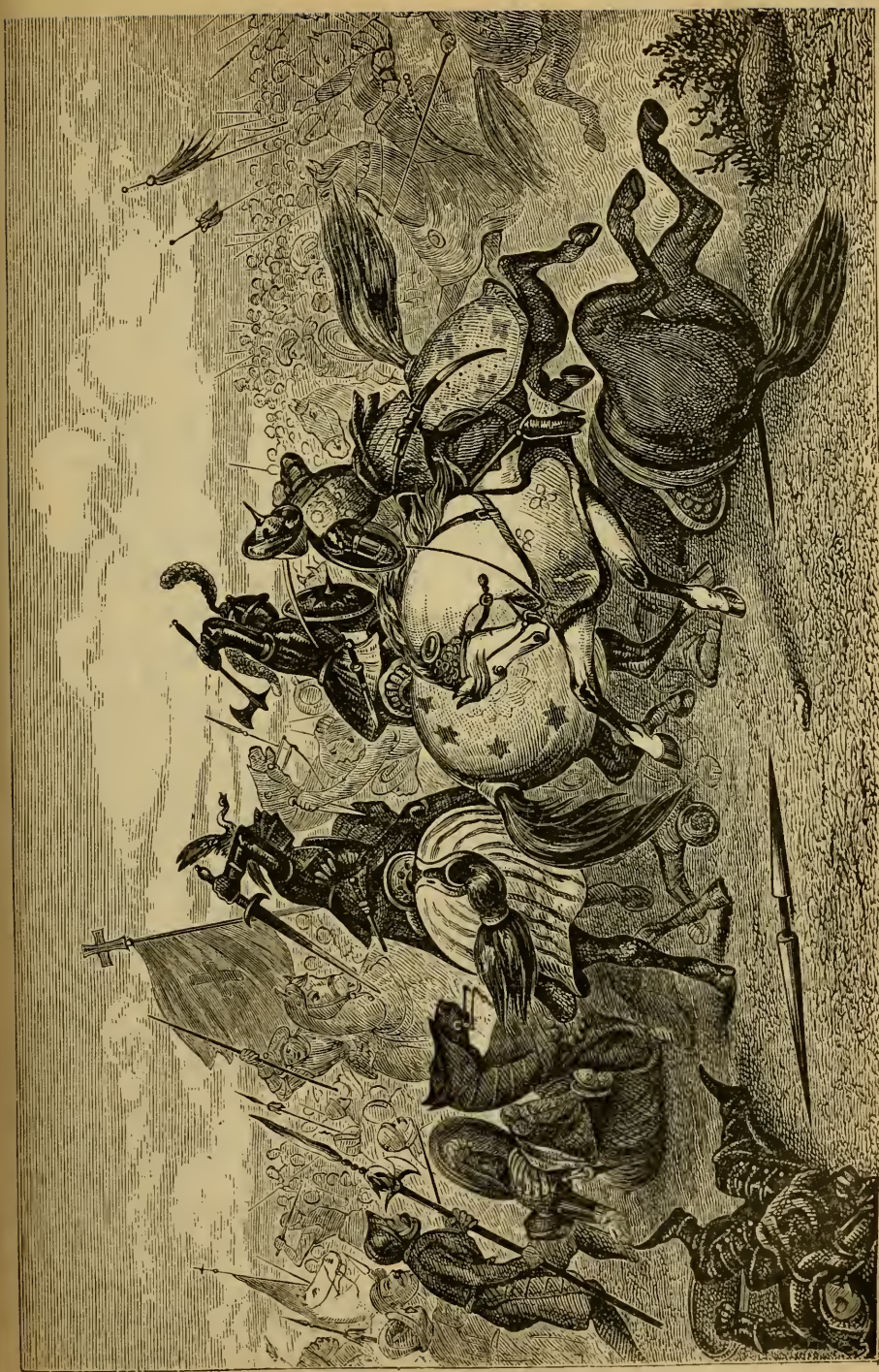
stream. When the German knights returned without their emperor, the people would not believe the story of his death, and a legend gradually arose that Frederick was asleep beneath his castle, but would one day awake "to make Germany united and free."

Richard and Philip joined their arms before Acre, and at last planted their banners on its ramparts; but after the surrender, Philip, jealous of Richard's military glory, returned to France. Still the English king advanced alone toward Jerusalem, and every evening when the army halted the cry arose from the camps, "Save the Holy Sepulchre!"

After many romantic adventures and incredible feats of valor with his huge battle-axe, Richard was obliged to abandon his enterprise. When within sight of Jerusalem, the city was pointed out to him from the top of a mountain; but he raised his shield before his eyes, declaring that he who could not redeem it from the infidels was unworthy to behold it, even in the distance.

Saladin, Richard's opponent, was a chief of high-toned, chivalric character. When Richard was dangerously ill of a fever, his life was saved by a present of luscious fruits and snow from the generous sultan. At the battle of Jaffa, observing that the king's horse was killed, Saladin sent in its place a beautiful Arabian. Richard, fearful of treachery, bade one of his knights mount, when the animal galloped off with him to the Saracen camp. But Saladin, who had presented the horse in good faith, sent the knight back on a better-trained steed, which Richard accepted and rode.

On his return to Europe, Richard fell into the hands of the Duke of Austria, whom his arrogant conduct in the Holy Land had made his enemy, and was thrown into a dungeon. He was given up to the German emperor; but being discovered by his favorite troubadour Blondel, was



COMBAT BETWEEN CRUSADERS AND SARACENS.

finally ransomed by his subjects. "Be on your guard," wrote Philip Augustus to John, on hearing of his release ; "the devil is broke loose."

Richard arrived safely in London, and so magnificent was his reception that a German prince who was present said, "O king ! had our emperor suspected this, you would not have been let off so lightly."

Saladin died soon after Richard's departure ; his empire was divided.

Fourth Crusade (1202-1204).—The nobles and knights who undertook the Fourth Crusade were diverted from their original purpose of relieving Palestine by Alexius, the rightful heir to the Eastern Empire. He prevailed on them to aid him in overthrowing a usurper ; Constantinople was taken, and Alexius placed on the throne. The people, however, soon rose against the new emperor and put him to death ; whereupon the Crusaders stormed Constantinople, plundered her palaces, destroyed her monuments of art, and founded on her ruins a Latin empire which lasted fifty-seven years (1204). The Latins were finally expelled by the Greek emperor Michael Palæol'ogus.

The Children's Crusade was the most remarkable of the numerous expeditions prompted by the fanaticism of the age. In the year 1212, thousands of children, led by a peasant-boy, set out to recover the Holy Sepulchre. But many perished of starvation and fatigue, others were murdered, and large numbers were sold as slaves by rapacious traders to the Saracens in Africa.

Fifth Crusade (1216-1220).—The Fifth Crusade, after a campaign in Palestine, was directed against Egypt ; but resulted in the humiliation of the Christian leaders, who were glad to obtain permission from the sultan to return to Europe.

In 1228, Frederick II. of Germany, grandson of Barbarossa, led a small force to the Holy Land, and succeeded in

obtaining the cession of Jerusalem. For fifteen years the Christian residents of Palestine enjoyed rest ; when the Carizmian Turks, a fierce Asiatic tribe, poured into Syria, massacred all who opposed them, and pillaged Jerusalem. Christians and Mohammedans were obliged to unite against these barbarians, to maintain their very existence.

Sixth and Seventh Crusades (1249–1254, 1269–1272).—These expeditions were undertaken by Louis IX. of France, called *Saint Louis* on account of his piety and virtues. To enlist his nobles in the enterprise, Louis had gold crosses attached to the new suits which, according to custom, he presented them at Christmas ; pride and fealty alike forbade them to shrink from the duty laid upon them by their sovereign's device.

In the first expedition Louis invaded Egypt, but was defeated, taken prisoner, and forced to pay 400,000 pieces of gold as a ransom for himself and his followers. In the second he landed in northern Africa ; but, while encamped before Tunis, he was carried off by the plague. The English Prince Edward (afterward Edward I.), who had intended to co-operate with Louis, notwithstanding his death went on to Palestine. After some successes, he was stabbed by an assassin with a poisoned dagger, but was saved, a Spanish historian tells us, by the devotion of his wife, Eleanor of Castile, who at the risk of her life sucked the venom from the wound.

The successors of Saladin, finding themselves unable to cope with the European knights, bought Tartar youths and trained them in the service of the camp. These military slaves were called *Mamelukes*. They formed the body-guard of the sultan, and like the old Pretorians of Rome became in time a formidable power in the state. About 1250 they seized the government, and in 1291 captured Acre (see Map, p. 212), the last Christian town in Palestine. Thus ended the Holy Wars.

Effects of the Crusades.—The Crusades were productive of both good and evil. Among their advantages, it may be observed that they had a refining effect on the ruder nations, by bringing them in contact with Constantinople and the rich cities of Italy, then the centres of Christian civilization and art. They tended to destroy prejudice and bigotry by directing attention to customs, laws, institutions, and religions, before but imperfectly understood. They awakened the imagination, and thus gave an impulse to the torpid mind of Europe. They diffused a knowledge of useful inventions, and arts in which the Orientals were then proficient. They promoted commerce, and eventually revived an interest in manufactures. Finally, they established a chord of sympathy between the different European nations.

On the other hand, they cost Europe two millions of efficient men and vast amounts of treasure ; they unsettled sober industry, encouraged profligacy, and for a time rolled back the tide of order and civilization which had begun to set in after the inundations of the Norsemen.

Whatever the effect, whether good or bad, on the general condition of the people, there is no doubt that the Crusades contributed to the overthrow of feudalism and the strengthening of the power of the church. To raise means for the equipment of their forces, the nobles in many cases were obliged to part with their fiefs. Numbers fell in battle, and left their lands to the crown or to the church. Cities, in return for advances of money, obtained an increase of privileges ; and thus the power of knights and nobles as a class diminished, while that of the kings, the church, and the cities, proportionately increased.

A better knowledge of geography, which had before been imperfect, was one of the results of travel and adventure in the East. Such stories as were told in a geo-

graphical work of the eleventh century, that the inhabitants of Russia had but one leg and one eye, were no longer currently believed. In fact, a spur was given to exploration, which subsequently led to the doubling of the Cape of Good Hope and the discovery of America.

1200 A. D.—Second year of King John's reign; three thousand students in Oxford University; language of England in the transition (Semi-Saxon) period. France flourishing under Philip Augustus. Pope Innocent III. the ruling spirit of the age; influence of the church predominant. Italian cities, enriched by the Crusades and republican in government, making rapid strides. Manufacturing industry reviving. Schoolmen discussing metaphysics, and introducing the methods of Aristotle. Provençal poetry at its zenith. Modern Gothic architecture originating, with its pointed arches and slender, highly-ornamented columns.



CHAPTER XXIX.

THE GREAT TARTAR CONQUERORS.

Genghis Khan.—Central Asia in 1164 produced one of those great men who seem born to rule. Persia was at this time subject to the Turks; China was divided into two distinct kingdoms; while the extensive table-lands north and west of China were occupied by various tribes of Mongols, whose chief wealth consisted in their camels, cows, sheep, goats, and horses.

A renowned Tartar chief who had united under his sway forty thousand families belonging to this great Mongolian race, died leaving his sceptre to his son Tem'ujin, then only thirteen years old. Some of the tribes refused to submit to so youthful a monarch; but Temujin, though young, showed that he was not to be trifled with, by reducing the rebels to obedience, and ordering seventy of their chiefs to be thrown into as many caldrons of boiling

water. At length, having fleshed his sabre sufficiently to prove his abilities as a leader, Temujin, in a general convention of the Mongol princes from far and near, was formally acknowledged sovereign, and proclaimed as Genghis Khan (*jen'ghis kahn*), or *Universal Lord*.

The new ruler, thus finding himself at the head of many separate tribes, proceeded to organize his vast dominions into a well-regulated empire, and to establish a powerful army, made up of various Mongol elements, but officered mainly by Tartar chiefs. A code of laws was enacted, roads were built, and fortifications constructed. Every thing having been thus arranged to his satisfaction, Genghis Khan was ready for a career of conquest.

A demand from the Chinese emperor for the customary tribute from the Mongolian tribes soon brought on a war with China ; and it was not long before hordes of Mongols broke through the Great Wall, and were revelling in the spoils of the Celestial Empire. Notwithstanding the Chinese used in their defence the Greek fire, or some similar substance, and bombs filled with gunpowder, which seems to have been known to them centuries before its invention in Europe, they were no match for the Tartar hosts. Peking was taken in 1215, and the whole of the Northern Kingdom was annexed by the conqueror.

Genghis now turned his sword to the west, and with 700,000 Mongols overran the Carizmian Empire, which extended over Turkestan to the borders of the Caspian. Flourishing cities, seats of learning filled with the treasures of art, were sacked ; the country was devastated, and its people slaughtered or enslaved. Some who escaped found their way into Palestine, and there committed the outrages which provoked the last Crusades.

Success attended this mighty conqueror in various other expeditions, in the course of which he made the circuit of the Caspian, subjugated nearly all Persia, and ap-

proached the boundaries of India. Everywhere the old story of pillage and butchery was repeated. In building up his immense empire, three thousand miles in length, from the Sea of Japan to Europe, he is said to have destroyed fifty thousand cities and five million human lives.

When these conquests had raised the renown of Genghis to its height, a grand assemblage of chieftains from



GENGHIS RECEIVING THE HOMAGE OF THE TRIBUTARY CHIEFS.

all parts of his dominions gathered at an appointed time (1224), to do him homage. One of the presents offered on this occasion was a herd of 100,000 horses. The scene was one of great barbaric pomp, and the ceremonies terminated with a splendid hunt and banquet.

Genghis Khan died in 1227; and, as a fitting close to

his bloody career, some historians tell us that a hundred beautiful virgins were sacrificed on his grave. He left the greater part of his vast empire to his son Ok'tai.

Oktai dispatched an army to conquer the remote West ; within six years it had reduced Russia and penetrated into Germany. A force under another leader traversed the wilds of Siberia as far as the Arctic Circle.

Though not followers of Mohammed, Oktai and Genghis tolerated the religion of the prophet. A foreigner once told Oktai that Genghis Khan had appeared to him in a dream, and ordered a general slaughter of Mohammedans throughout the country. Oktai asked the man if he knew the Mongol language, and on his answering in the negative, said, "My father spoke no other ; how then could you understand him?" Having thus detected the falsehood, he punished it with death.

Kublai Khan (*koo'bli kahn*), a grandson of Genghis, effected the conquest of southern China in 1279, and reigned with ability from the Arctic Ocean to the Strait of Malacca, and from the Yellow Sea to the Euxine. Marco Polo, the famous Venetian traveller, visited him at Peking, his capital.

After this, the power of the Mongols declined. Russia paid tribute till the middle of the fifteenth century ; but within one hundred and fifty years after the death of Genghis the Mongol rulers were expelled from China, and their empire in Persia was dismembered.

Tamerlane (*Timour the lame*), a petty Tartar chief, having been elected khan by the princes of his native province in 1369, aspired to unite under his sceptre all the countries that had belonged to his ancestor Genghis. Persia and Tartary were soon in his power. His punishments, like those of Genghis, were terrible. We are told that two thousand inhabitants of a Persian town which had revolted were built up into a tower with mortar.

After subduing Georgia, Tamerlane extended his ravages into Russia, and plundered Moscow, while all Europe trembled. He next proposed the conquest of India. His emirs tried to dissuade him, exclaiming, "The rivers! the mountains and deserts! and the soldiers clad in armor! and the elephants, destroyers of men!" But his zeal for the Mohammedan faith urged him on, and in 1398 he crossed the Indus.

Here again his arms were victorious. The Mongols were sated with the blood of thousands of idolaters, and enriched with slaves and gold. Even the elephants are fabled to have fallen down before the khan and cried for quarter. By some the roving tribes called *Gypsies* are believed to be the descendants of Hindoos driven by the Mongols from their native land.

From India Tamerlane returned to crush a revolt in Georgia. He next overran Syria, and in Bagdad erected a pyramid of ninety thousand human heads as a warning against rebellion. A terrible battle with the Turks resulted in their utter defeat (1402), on which both the Ottoman and the Eastern Empire were glad to propitiate the oriental conqueror with tribute.

On his way to re-establish the Mongol power in China in 1405, Tamerlane was overtaken by death. His vast empire fell to pieces through the dissensions of his successors.

Contemporaneous Sovereigns.

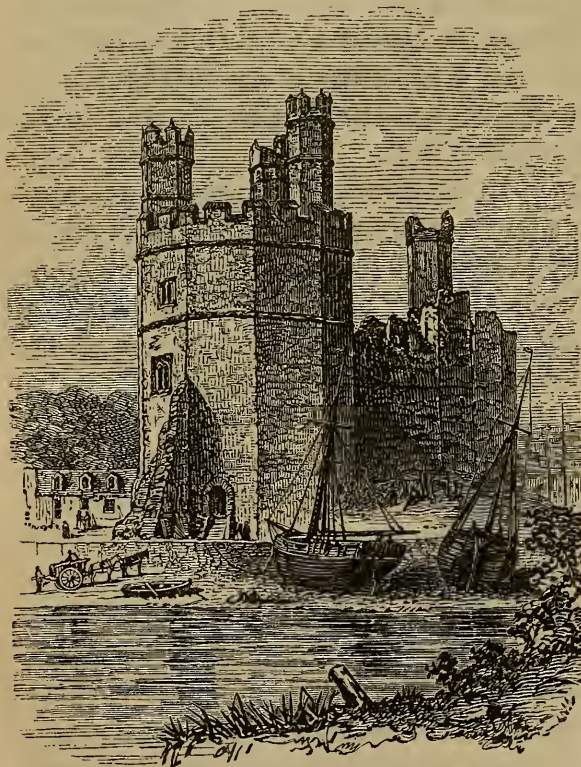
GENGHIS KHAN, 1203-1227.	{ John and Henry III., of England; Philip Augustus, of France; Frederick II., of Germany.
OKTAT, 1227-1241.	{ Henry III., of England; (Saint) Louis IX., of France; (Saint) Ferdinand, of Castile and Leon.
KUBLAI KHAN, 1259-1294.	{ Edward I., of England; Philip III., of France; Ru- dolph of Hapsburg; the Viscontis in Milan.
TAMERLANE, 1369-1405.	{ Richard II., of England; Charles VI., of France; Cosmó de Medici (<i>med'e-che</i>), of Florence.

CHAPTER XXX.

*ENGLAND UNDER THE THREE EDWARDS.—CON-
TEMPORARY HISTORY OF FRANCE.*

(1272-1377.)

Edward I., Longshanks, son of Henry III., was returning from the last Crusade, when intelligence reached him of his father's death. Proceeding to London, he was crowned with his wife amid great rejoicings (1274).



CARNARVON CASTLE.

Edward began his reign by adopting judicious measures for the repression of disorders and a rigid enforcement of the laws. His first military undertaking was the subjugation of Wales, which, as we have seen, had been reduced by Henry II., but whose chief Llewellyn declined to go to London to ren-

der homage to the new king. Inspired by the wild poetry of their bards, the Welsh gallantly defended their liberties; but Llewellyn was eventually slain (1282), and King

Edward, in order to conciliate the people, promised them a native-born sovereign who could speak no English. When their barons assembled, he presented them his own son Edward, born a few days before in the Welsh castle of Carnarvon, and the chieftains kissed the hands of the first Prince of Wales.

The ambition of Edward next led him to attempt the annexation of Scotland. Alexander III. in 1286 had left that kingdom to his infant granddaughter, the Maid of Norway. It was proposed by Edward to marry this princess to his son, and thus consolidate the whole island in one monarchy. The plan was favorably received, but unfortunately frustrated by the decease of the Scottish child-queen. Thirteen nobles at once claimed the vacant throne, chief of whom were John Baliol and Robert Bruce. The Scots asked Edward to decide the question of succession. He pronounced for Baliol, who was crowned King of Scotland as his vassal.

Incensed at the treatment which as a vassal he received from the English king, Baliol soon renounced his allegiance and formed an alliance with Philip IV., the Fair, of France; but he was overthrown by Edward at Dunbar', captured, and incarcerated in the Tower of London.

Scotland, however, was still unsubdued; a temporary deliverer appeared in the person of Sir William Wallace, against whom a powerful English army was promptly dispatched. Its commander, finding him strongly posted on the Forth, sent two friars to propose a truce. "Go tell your masters," said Wallace, "we came not here to treat, but to set Scotland free." Enraged at this defiance, the English advanced and began to cross the river on a narrow bridge. When half the force had made the passage, the Scots fell upon it, and gained a complete victory.

For a time Wallace acted as "Guardian of the Realm;" but at last defeated and betrayed by a follower to Ed-

ward, he was condemned as a traitor, and dragged at the tails of horses to the scaffold. His head, crowned in mockery with a wreath of laurel, was set on London Bridge.

Robert Bruce, grandson of the rival of Baliol, next arose as the restorer of his country's liberties, and after gaining some advantages over the English was crowned king (1306). Edward, now an old man, again set out to conquer Scotland, but was overtaken on the way by death. He had made his son promise to continue the war against the Scots, carrying his bones at the head of the army, for he believed that even the presence of these would be sufficient to insure victory.

Edward I. possessed many noble and generous qualities, yet he was at times unjust and cruel. During his reign the Jews were bitterly persecuted, and in 1290 they were expelled the kingdom on pain of death. He confirmed the Magna Charta, and so improved the laws and administered justice that he was called the English Justinian.

Contemporaneous with Edward was Pope Boniface VIII., in whose time the political influence of the papal see sensibly declined. When Boniface prohibited the clergy from paying taxes, Edward showed his disregard of the pope's authority by increasing his exactions.

Philip IV. of France also asserted his independence of Rome, calling the first assembly of the States-general (1302) to support him in his resistance to Boniface. The reign of this prince was further noted for the suppression of the Knights Templars.

Edward II. failed to comply with the dying injunction of his father, and led his army back into England. He buried the dead monarch at Westminster with this inscription on his tomb, "Edward I., the Hammer of the Scotch."

Edward had spent his youth in the society of dissolute companions ; and now, surrounded by unworthy favorites, he gave himself up to dissipation. Bruce meantime, with a little band, bravely struggled in the cause of his country ; now foiling the blood-hounds that bayed on his track, now holding the mountain-pass single-handed against a host of foes. After many hair-breadth escapes, fortune rewarded his efforts, and nearly all Scotland was recovered from the English.

BANNOCKBURN.—These successes finally awakened Edward from his indifference. He took the field at the head of a large army, and came up with Bruce on the burn, or brook, of Bannock. The evening before the battle, an English knight, perceiving Bruce riding in front of his army on a small Highland pony, bore down upon him with his lance. But the Scot parried the thrust, and, rising in his stirrups, cleft his adversary's skull to the chin with one stroke of his battle-axe. This feat was looked upon as a good omen by his followers. In the gray of the morning they were led to the field by an abbot, barefoot and with a crucifix in his hand. The English, seeing them kneel as he prayed, shouted, "They beg for mercy !" "Yes," said a knight, "but only from God."

The Scotch force was protected in front by pits filled with sharp stakes and concealed by sods ; hence, when the English charged, their horses were entangled and the riders thrown. Bruce won the day, and Edward fled from the kingdom pursued by the Scottish cavalry.

The victory of Bannockburn virtually secured the independence of Scotland. In 1328 a treaty was concluded with the young Edward III., who renounced all claim to the Scotch crown, and gave his sister in marriage to David, the son and successor of Robert Bruce.

Edward II. was dethroned and imprisoned by his queen, Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, who had conspired

against him with her favorite Mortimer, an exiled noble. The ruffians of Mortimer soon after dispatched the king with frightful barbarity (1327).

Edward III. avenged his father's death by executing Mortimer and imprisoning the queen. By right of his mother, he laid claim to the French crown ; but the Sal'ic law, which obtained in France, confined the succession to the male line ; and after the death of Charles IV., Edward's uncle, the French peers decided in favor of Philip VI., of Valois (*val-wah'*), cousin of the deceased king.

WAR WITH FRANCE.—Edward appealed to arms, and began the Hundred Years' War. Landing in Normandy (1346), he encountered Philip in the battle of Cressy (Map, p. 202), in which the French were defeated with the loss of thirty thousand soldiers and twelve hundred knights—the flower of their chivalry. Among the latter was the blind king of Bohemia, who ordered four attendants to fasten their bridles to his and lead him into the hottest of the fight, where all were slain.

Edward's eldest son, then only sixteen years old, called the Black Prince from the color of his armor, commanded a division of the English. He was at one time almost overwhelmed by the foe, but his father refused to send him aid, “in order that the boy might win his spurs ;” and young Edward proved himself worthy of the confidence. In this battle rude cannon were used.

Edward now laid siege to Calais (*kal'is*). This city gallantly defied him for a year, when starvation compelled the garrison to surrender. The English king gave them their lives on condition that six of the principal townsmen, with ropes around their necks, should bring him the keys of the city and place their heads at his disposal. On the publication of this news in the market-place, the richest burgess arose and offered his life for the public weal. Others followed his example, and the six set out for the



QUEEN PHILIPPA INTERCEDING FOR THE BURGESSES OF CALAIS.

English camp. Their prayers for mercy were unavailing, and Edward had sent for the executioner, when his queen Philip'pa fell upon her knees and pleaded for their lives so eloquently that he could not refuse her. After feasting the prisoners, Philippa dismissed them to their homes, bearing costly tokens of her regard for their devotion.

Many English settlers were introduced into Calais, and it soon became a place of great importance.

Under John the Good, who ascended the throne of France on the death of his father Philip VI. in 1350, war with England again broke out. The French were at last signally defeated at Poitiers (1356), by a much inferior force under the Black Prince, and King John himself was captured. After the battle, the English prince conducted his royal prisoner to his own tent, and waited on him at supper in person. John was subsequently conveyed to England, where he was treated with like magnanimity.

By the Treaty of Bretigny (*bra-teen-ye'*) in 1360, Edward abandoned his pretensions to the French throne and surrendered Normandy, but retained Calais and the duchy of Aquitaine (*ak-we-tane'*).

King John died in England (1364), leaving the throne to his son Charles V., the Wise. The death of the Black Prince occurred in 1376, and that of his father the following year.

Literature.—Oxford, toward the close of the thirteenth century, was the residence of two of the most distinguished men of their time—Roger Bacon, whose learning and skill in mechanics were so great that he was looked upon as a magician; and Duns Sco'tus, "the subtle doctor," who lectured to 30,000 students. Bacon discovered the art of making gunpowder, and even foresaw the applications of which steam was capable. Duns shared with Thomas Aquinas, called "the angelic doctor," the honor of being the most distinguished schoolman of the Middle Ages.

The reign of Edward III. was marked by the dawn of English literature, the forms of the language, after passing through the transition period, having then become established. Sir John Mandeville's *Travels* is regarded as the oldest book in English prose; Wycliffe made the earliest translation of the Bible into the vernacular; while the "moral Gower," and Geoffrey Chaucer, the author of "*Canterbury Tales*," were the first great names in English poetry.

The French language was formed by a blending of the dialects spoken by the Frankish and Norse invaders with the corrupt Latin which they found current in the country. Its forms became settled about the beginning of the thirteenth century, when French prose may be said to have originated. It was greatly improved in the succeeding century by Joinville in his *Life of St. Louis*, and Frois'sart the lively historian.

1300 A. D.—William Wallace carrying on a border warfare in Scotland against Edward I. Philip IV., the Fair, king of France. Pope Boniface VIII. orders a jubilee at Rome. Ottoman Empire founded in Asia. Mohammedan dominion in Spain reduced to Granada (*grah-nah'-dä*). Universities of Lyons and Ler'ida (in Spain) founded—the first of many established in the fourteenth century. Cimabue (*che-mah-boo'a*), father of the modern school of painting, dies at Florence. Giotto (*jot'to*), the first successful portrait-painter, surpasses Cimabue and excels also in mosaics.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE ITALIAN STATES.—RISE OF THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.—SWITZERLAND.

Italy, after Otho's death (p. 176), was the scene of constant contentions between the German emperors and the popes, the partisans of the former being distinguished as

Ghibellines (*ghib'el-linz*), and those of the latter as Guelphs (*gwelfs*). As the imperial power declined in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, many of the Italian cities assumed the right of self-government and formed themselves into republics. The Crusades developed their commerce, and in wealth, art, and literature, they were soon far in advance of the rest of Europe.

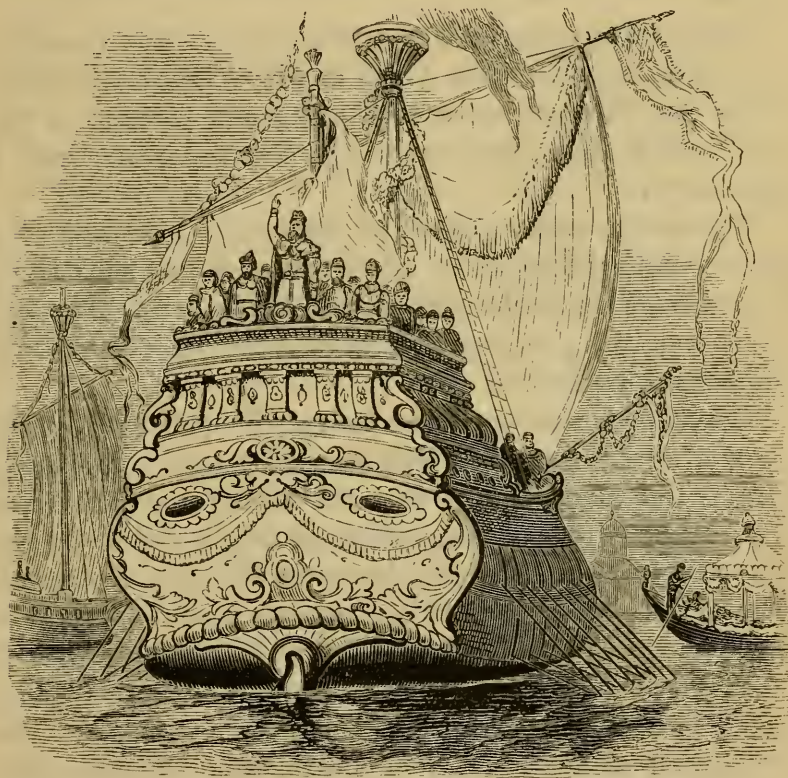
In 1167 the cities of northern Italy formed a confederation, called the Lombard League, for the purpose of opposing Frederick Barbarossa in his attempts to re-establish the German sway. Frederick was defeated by the forces of the league, and afterward signed a treaty which recognized the political freedom of the cities.

Venice, founded, as we have seen, in the fifth century, on a group of islands in the northern Adriatic, became in time the most important commercial city in Italy, and finally in the world. At first each of the islands was a separate republic; property was common; rich and poor lived upon terms of equality. At length in 697 a convention was held, and a prince was elected with the title of *Doge* (from the Latin *dux*, a leader). At a later date the Venetians brought the remains of St. Mark from Alexandria, made him their patron saint, and represented his lion in their coat of arms.

We next hear of the city's being assailed by the Hungarians, in the tenth century. A furious naval battle took place, the sea was covered with dead bodies, and the Venetians, fighting upon heaps of the slain barbarians as upon dry land, won a victory that made their name famous throughout the world. This success was followed by the conquest of an extensive tract along the eastern shore of the Adriatic.

The Venetians rendered important assistance to the first Crusaders, and during the struggle with the emperor Barbarossa destroyed forty-eight of his vessels. Their

naval successes led them to celebrate every year the singular ceremony of wedding the Adriatic. The doge, surrounded by his nobles and a fleet of gayly-equipped vessels, cast a ring into the waters, as a symbol that the sea was subjected to his control as a wife to her husband.



DOGE OF VENICE WEDDING THE ADRIATIC.

Dan'dolo, the blind doge, assisted the knights of the Fourth Crusade to capture Constantinople, receiving as his share one half of the spoils of the city, besides Candia and southern Greece. Shortly before this (1171) the Bank of Venice, the first institution of the kind in Europe, was founded.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the gov-

ernment of Venice was an oppressive oligarchy ; the authority of the doge was limited by a council of ten, whose power was almost absolute. A state inquisition was established ; spies listened to every word, and political offenders were visited with the most dreadful punishments.

Venice lost many of her possessions in wars with the Turks ; finally, when the Cape of Good Hope was doubled by the Portuguese in 1497 and a new passage to the East Indies thus discovered, her commerce received a death-blow.

Gen'oa, the opulent rival of Venice, was the seat of a great commercial republic, whose colonies extended along the coasts of the Mediterranean and Black Seas. The two states were long engaged in wars, growing out of their commercial jealousies.

Genoa was renowned for its marble palaces and the stores of artistic wealth which they contained. For many years it was distracted by internal feuds ; and the Genoese, unable to govern themselves, at length fell under the power of France. In 1528, however, An'drea Do'ria restored the independence of his country, and gave the people a constitution which lasted for nearly three centuries.

Pisa (*pe'sah*), the capital of another enterprising republic (see Map, p. 172), disputed with the Genoese the sovereignty of the western Mediterranean. These struggles continued for more than two hundred years, and terminated to the disadvantage of the Pisans.—Pisa was celebrated for its marble baptistery and leaning tower.

Mil'an, the richest and most populous city of Lombardy, almost impregnable with its walls and broad canals, revolted from the imperial rule in the twelfth century. Frederick Barbarossa was soon before the gates with an army. When famine at last compelled the Milanese to surrender, the emperor condemned their city to destruc-

tion, and forced the clergy and nobles to repair to his camp barefooted, with swords at their throats, to sue for pardon.

The Milanese, however, took ample revenge. Raising an army, they renounced their allegiance, seized the empress, mounted her on an ass with her face toward the animal's tail, conducted her to the gates, and expelled her from the town. On this Barbarossa razed the walls to the ground ; but Milan soon recovered, and under the Visconti extended its power over nearly all Lombardy.

Florence was early distinguished above the other cities of Tuscany by the industry of its inhabitants and their knowledge of the arts. Money-changers, jewellers, and goldsmiths, were numerous, and had commercial establishments in many of the European states.

The government was at first in the hands of the nobles ; but about 1250 the people rose against them and established a democracy. In spite of civil commotions, Florence increased in wealth, until it became the financial metropolis of Europe. The republic survived till the fifteenth century, when the powerful family of Medici (*med'e-che*) obtained control of the state. Cosmo de Medici, styled the "Friend of the People and Father of his Country," ruled with almost unlimited authority ; his wealth was greater than that of any king in Europe, and he lavished it upon the church and people. Under his munificent patronage, sculpture, painting, and architecture flourished, and Greek professors "spread abroad the treasures of their orators, philosophers, and poets."

Lorenzo the Magnificent, grandson of Cosmo, followed in the path of his illustrious ancestor, and also beautified Florence with many public edifices.

Naples was subdued in the twelfth century by the Normans, who united it with Sicily, forming the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. It afterward fell into the possession of

Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France; but such were the insolence and tyranny of the French that the Sicilians rose against them on Easter Monday, 1282. At the first note of the vesper-bell, they fell upon their oppressors, stiletto in hand, and by the next day scarcely a Frenchman remained alive on the island.

This massacre is known in history as the Sicilian Vespers. The vacant crown was conferred on Pedro III. of Aragon.

Papal States.—Although the temporal power of the popes after the thirteenth century began to decline, they still exercised authority over the dominions of the church in Italy, embracing the city of Rome and the surrounding territory. In 1305 Pope Clement V. fixed his abode at Avignon (*ah-veen-yon'*), in France, and Rome ceased to be the papal residence for more than seventy years.

During this period a great revolution took place in Rome. Rienzi (*re-en'ze*), a man of humble birth, moved by an earnest desire to revive the glory of his country, established a republic, and placed himself at its head with the title of *Tribune*. He was the author of many salutary reforms; but at last, having disgusted the people by his arrogance, he fell in a popular tumult.

In 1377 the seat of the papal power was moved back to Rome. But contentions arose between different factions respecting the rights of election, and at one time there were three rival popes. This division was called the Great Schism of the West.

Italian Literature and Industry.—In the thirteenth century the Italian language assumed its modern form. It was based on the ancient vernacular of the Roman people, modified by the primitive dialects, as well as by the idioms of the nations who successively invaded the country. Dan'te the Florentine (1265–1321) may be called the father of Italian literature. His “Divine Comedy” is

the first work of modern genius that suffers not by a comparison with the ancient masterpieces. Pe'trarch, the inventor of the sonnet, succeeded Dante, and still further improved the language. Boccaccio (*bo-kaht'cho*), the contemporary and friend of Petrarch, was a great reviver of learning, and in his "Decameron" has left what is still regarded as a model of Italian prose.

Architecture and manufacturing industry were revived at this time in Italy, no less than learning and literature. Lucca and Genoa became renowned for their silks; Milan and Florence, for their cloths. In Florence originated a beautiful gold coin, stamped with a lily, the device of the city, and called the *florin*, which became a general standard of value.

Germany.—After the death of the emperor Frederick II. in 1250, anarchy prevailed in Germany until the election of Count Rudolph of Hapsburg (*Hawk's-castle*), in 1273. It was in this century that the Hanseatic League was formed by the German cities for mutual protection against piracy, and the expansion of their commerce. It embraced nearly one hundred towns, the four great depots of trade being London, Bru'ges, Novgorod in Russia, and Bergen, a seaport of Norway. The trade of Novgorod extended from Ireland to China. Its population, 400,000, was virtually independent; and its greatness passed into a proverb, so that it was asked, "Who can resist God and Novgorod the mighty?"

Rudolph put an end to the crime and oppression prevailing in Germany. In one year seventy castles, the retreats of banditti, were demolished. The Duke of Austria, who refused to acknowledge his authority, was slain in battle, and since that time the house of Hapsburg has ruled in Austria.

Rudolph's exaltation is said to have been predicted in early life. While hunting one day, he was overtaken by

a storm. Happening to meet a priest who was on his way to administer the sacrament to a sick person, he dismounted in the mud and placed his horse at the curate's disposal, walking bareheaded by his side. The priest in return pronounced upon him a solemn benediction, and prophesied that he would wear the imperial crown.

Rudolph had seven beautiful daughters whom he married to powerful princes, thus increasing the influence of his family. Only one son survived him, the Duke of Austria, who was elected emperor in 1298 with the title of Albert I.

Albert proved to be an avaricious and tyrannical sovereign. Feared and hated by his subjects, he was finally murdered by his nephew, whose dominions he had appropriated.

The most noted successors of Albert I. were Henry VII., who reduced northern Italy and endeavored to restore peace to that distracted country; and Charles IV., who established the University of Prague, the first in Germany, and issued (1356) an imperial code, called the Golden Bull, because fastened with a golden seal (in Latin, *bullæ*), which defined the rights of the electors,* and remained in force four hundred and fifty years.

The barbarous Wen'ceslas, son of Charles IV., richly merited the title of "the second Nero," which he one day found written after his name on the palace-wall. It was dangerous even to be the friend of this tyrant, for there was no telling at what moment a bloodhound or executioner might be called in requisition to gratify his brutal caprice or drunken fury. He had his wife's confessor drowned for refusing to reveal her secrets, and even roasted his cook alive for having badly prepared a fowl. At last he put to death his executioner, whom he ordered to cut

* The princes who were entitled to vote at the election of an emperor were styled *Electors*. At this time they were seven in number.

off his head, but who preferred not to take the emperor at his word.

Sigismund (*sij'is-mund*), brother of Wenceslas, ascended the throne in 1410. During his reign the Schism of the West was terminated.

Switzerland.—The history of Switzerland was intimately connected with that of Germany during the reign of Albert I. This country, the old Helve'tia of the Romans, had been laid waste by northern barbarians, and in the sixth century had become subject to the Franks (see Map, p. 156). During the decline of the Carlovingian power, the northern part had been incorporated in the German Empire ; but the ancient forest cantons on Lake Lucerne' had never been conquered, and were only under the protection of the emperors.

Rudolph of Hapsburg had a large domain in Switzerland, and proved a lenient master ; but Albert, desirous of enlarging his family possessions, proposed to unite the free Swiss towns to his Austrian estates, and this occasioned a memorable struggle for liberty.

Albert appointed as governor an unscrupulous tyrant, Gessler, whose acts of oppression aroused the slumbering spirit of the Swiss, and called forth the energies of William Tell, the liberator of his country. Refusing to bow before the ducal cap of Austria, which Gessler had elevated on a pole in the market-place of Altorf, Tell was seized and condemned by the governor to pierce with an arrow an apple placed on the head of his son. Overcoming his feelings, the unerring marksman struck the apple to the core ; but in the excitement of the moment he let fall another arrow which was concealed in his garment. Gessler inquired for what it was intended. "To kill thee, tyrant," replied Tell, "had I harmed my son !"

At these words the governor ordered Tell to be placed in irons, and, embarking with him on Lake Lucerne,

started for a dungeon on the opposite shore. But suddenly a tempest arose, and the inexperienced soldiers, unbinding their prisoner, gave him the helm. Tell steered for the shore, leaped upon a rock, pushed the boat back again into the waves, and soon found an opportunity to pierce the heart of Gessler with an arrow.

The Swiss now assembled an army, expelled the Austrian troops, and formed a league for the defence of their liberties. In 1315, Leopold, son of Albert, determined to punish the confederated cantons; but the flower of his army fell on the field of Morgar'ten (see Map, p. 299), beneath the iron-headed clubs of the mountaineers. This is

the first instance in modern times of the superiority of infantry to mounted men.

William Tell perished in a flood which destroyed his native village, while attempting to save the life of a child. His memory is still dear to the Swiss. On the rock to which he leaped from Gessler's boat stands



TELL'S CHAPEL.

Tell's Chapel, in which once a year religious service is performed.

In 1386, a small force of Swiss gained another great victory over the Austrians, at Sempach (see Map, p. 299). In this battle Arnold Wink'elried cried to his country-

men, "Dear brothers, I will open a way for you; take care of my wife and children." Then, rushing on the bristling spears of the Austrians, he gathered as many as he could within his grasp, and thus opened a path for his comrades into the ranks of the foe.

The independence of Switzerland was not fully established till the end of the fifteenth century.

Fourteenth Century: Inventions, etc.

The mariner's compass, ascribed to Gioja (*jo'yah*), of Amalfi (*ah-mahl'fe*), Italy; early known to the Chinese. Gunpowder, cannon, bombs, and mortars, used in war. Spectacles first made; their usefulness alluded to by Roger Bacon in the previous century. Chimneys; glazed windows; pins; side-saddles. First mills established in Germany for the manufacture of linen paper.

Modern science of anatomy originated in Italy; first dissection of dead bodies at Bologna (*bo-lone'yah*) in 1315. Magic, astrology, and alchemy, in vogue; objects of alchemy, to find the elixir of life, and the philosopher's stone with which to transmute the base metals into gold.



CHAPTER XXXII.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR (CONTINUED).— WARS OF THE ROSES.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, though only in his eleventh year, was crowned king of England after the obsequies of his grandfather, Edward III. (1377). The throne of France was at this time filled by Charles V., the Wise, a patron of learning and founder of the Royal Library at Paris. He wrested from the English nearly all of their French acquisitions, and even sent a fleet to ravage their coasts. But soon after the accession of Richard, Charles died, leaving his kingdom to a minor (Charles VI.).

France, as well as England, now became a prey to the dissensions of ambitious nobles.

In England, the uncles of Richard, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester (*glos'ter*)—fourth, fifth, and sixth sons of Edward III.—with other noblemen, were made regents during the prince's minority. To meet the expenses of the French wars, a tax of twelve pence was imposed on every one who had reached the age of fifteen. At this period the people of many countries were manifesting a spirit of opposition to the exactions of their rulers, and the new measure roused the poorer classes almost to madness; it needed but a spark to spring the mine. When a young girl was shamefully insulted by a tax-collector, her father, Wat Tyler, dashed out the ruffian's brains with his hammer, and summoned his neighbors to arms. Wat's forces soon swelled to one hundred thousand men, who marched toward London, plundering the manors of the nobles, and murdering lawyers and justices.

In compliance with the demands of the mob, Richard agreed that serfdom should be abolished, the rent of land reduced, and a general pardon granted. The following day, when attended by only sixty horsemen, he encountered twenty thousand of the insurgents with Tyler at their head. Wat advanced to meet the king, playing with the hilt of his dagger; but when he grasped Richard's bridle, the mayor of London felled him to the ground.

On this the rebels drew their bows; but Richard, realizing his danger, with greater presence of mind than could be expected in a youth of only sixteen years, boldly galloped up to the archers and exclaimed: "Tyler was a traitor! Come with me, my lieges, I will be your leader." Disconcerted for the moment, the multitude obeyed, and were soon met by a large body of the king's troops, when falling on their knees they begged for mercy. But Richard, safe from their violence, forgot his promises; fifteen

hundred were afterward executed, many of whom were left hanging in chains on gibbets as a terror to the disaffected.

Resolved at last to rule for himself, Richard seized the reins of power from the hands of his uncle Gloucester in 1389; and for a number of years he administered the government with remarkable wisdom and success. The turbulent Gloucester was finally arrested, and is said to have been smothered at Calais between two beds by order of the king. Lancaster's death not long afterward afforded Richard an opportunity of seizing on his immense landed property, to the exclusion of his son Henry, who had been banished from the realm. These and other impolitic acts of the king now awakened general discontent.

When therefore Henry, the young Duke of Lancaster, returned to England in 1399, he was easily able to place himself on the throne. Richard was imprisoned in Pontefract Castle (see Map, p. 202), where his days were ended, it is supposed, by violence or starvation (1400).

House of Lancaster.—**Henry IV.**, who dethroned Richard, was not the lawful sovereign of England; the crown of right belonged to Edmund Mortimer, the youthful Earl of March, who descended from the Duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III.

Henry's reign was one scene of confusion and trouble. The Welsh, under Owen Glen'dower, took up arms and threw off the English yoke. The powerful Percies also rebelled in concert with the Welsh.

Henry Percy (Hotspur) and the Scottish Douglas, two of the most valiant knights in Christendom, met the king in the battle of Shrewsbury, and cut their way to the centre of his forces. But Hotspur, after performing prodigies of valor, fell by a random shaft, and the day was lost. On the other side, the Prince of Wales distinguished himself by feats of daring. Although severely wounded

in the face, he refused to retire, saying, "Who will remain fighting, if the king's son flies at the first taste of steel?" This prince subsequently reduced the Welsh to submission.

The Lollards, or followers of Wycliffe, who attacked the corruptions of the church, were persecuted in this reign; and a "heretic" was burned for the first time in England.

Henry IV. died in 1413, worn out by anxiety and disease. During his illness, his son, believing him to be dead, carried off the crown. On awaking to consciousness, the king asked him what right he had to the crown when his father had none. "My liege," replied Prince Henry, "with the sword you won it, and with the sword I will keep it."

As from this period the histories of England and France were for some years intimately connected, we shall for a time consider them together.

Charles VI. was king of France while Richard II. and Henry IV. reigned in England. In Richard's time, he collected twelve hundred vessels for the invasion of that kingdom, and also caused to be built, in parts, a wooden city, defended by towers, to serve as a fortress for his army. A storm, however, wrecked his fleet, and the fragments of his wooden town were washed up on the English coast.

Charles was weak-minded; and two sudden frights which he received, first from having his horse stopped by a ragged maniac who warned him of treason, and the following year by being nearly burned to death at a masquerade, brought on attacks of insanity. To amuse him, cards are said to have been invented. His reign was distracted by the contentions of the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans; and France, weakened by their strife, lay at the mercy of her enemies. Henry IV. was too much occu-

pied at home to think of foreign conquests; but Henry V., his warlike son, revived the claim of his ancestors to the French crown.

Henry V. of England, before he ascended the throne, was a frivolous and vicious prince, whose freaks of folly were so notorious that he was commonly called "Madcap Harry." He frequented low taverns, and disguised as a highwayman would even attack and rob passers in the streets. But no sooner had Henry become king than his character changed; he discarded his unprincipled associates, surrounded himself with experienced ministers, and especially favored those who had opposed his evil career.

CONQUEST OF FRANCE.—The distracted condition of France soon engaged the attention of Henry. Reviving the claim of his great-grandfather Edward III., he demanded the crown of that country as heir of Philip the Fair. This claim having been indignantly refused, he required the cession of Normandy, Maine, and Anjou (see Map, p. 202), with the hand of Catharine, daughter of Charles VI., and a dowry of two million crowns.

Negotiations between the two kingdoms failed, and Henry consequently invaded France in 1415. At Agincourt (*ah-zhang-koor'*) he achieved a glorious victory over an army four times the size of his own. His skilful bowmen discharged such a shower of arrows that the French troops became confused, and many thousands were slaughtered—among them the noblest of the realm. King Henry wore a shining helmet surmounted by a jewelled crown, and was singled out by a number of French knights who had sworn to capture or slay the king of England. But he was saved by the devotion of his squires, who sacrificed their lives in defending his. Henry knighted them as they lay bleeding on the field of battle, and promised that future generations should learn of their bravery.

A few years later, Henry concluded a treaty by which

he received the princess Catharine in marriage, was made regent during the lifetime of Charles VI., and was declared his successor. But he died about two months before Charles (1422).

Henry VI., the infant son of Henry V. and Catharine, was now proclaimed king of England and France ; and his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, who had been appointed protector, took the field to maintain his cause. The true heir to the French monarchy was the Dauphin,* Charles VII., who was supported principally in the southern provinces. The English gradually gained ground, and at last laid siege to Orleans, the most important city in the possession of Charles. After a severe blockade the town was on the eve of capitulating, when a poor peasant-girl appeared on the stage to rescue France.

THE MAID OF ORLEANS.—Far away among the hills of Lorraine, in the eastern part of France, lived Joan of Arc, the daughter of a cottager, whose flocks she tended. In her hours of solitude she saw visions, and said that voices called to her from the woods. There was an old tradition that a girl from the forests of Lorraine would one day save France ; and when she heard of the disasters that were befalling her country, Joan felt herself impelled to offer her services to the Dauphin, assured that in her the tradition would find its fulfilment.

Having proved her power to the king's satisfaction by singling him out, though disguised, from a hundred knights who were present, Joan was sent to the army. She appeared in camp, clad in a suit of white armor and mount-

* The title of *Dauphin*, derived from the name of the province of Dauphiny (see Map, p. 202), was first borne by Charles V. It is related that the last Count of Dauphiny, overcome with grief at having caused the death of his infant son by letting him fall from a balcony, withdrew to a monastery, resigning his dominions to Philip VI. of Valois on condition that the heir of France should be called the Dauphin (1349).

ed on a war-horse ; her head was unhelmeted, and her long black hair fell down around her shoulders. The rough men-at-arms received her with enthusiasm, and at her bidding left off their profanity and evil habits. She marched



JOAN OF ARC.

at their head, displaying a consecrated banner, and effected an entrance into Orleans with a supply of provisions for the famishing citizens.

From this moment success deserted the standard of the English ; their forts fell into the hands of Joan, and the siege was soon raised. From her heroism in relieving the beleaguered city, Joan was called the Maid of Orleans.

Charles was subsequently crowned at Rheims, while

the Maid stood by his side in complete armor. Having now performed her double mission, she knelt at his feet and prayed for her discharge. But Charles induced her to remain,—and for a sad fate. She was taken prisoner by the English, condemned for witchcraft, and burned at the stake. The ungrateful king offered no ransom, proposed no exchange, for the Maid who had saved his crown. His end was almost as terrible as hers ; he starved himself to death from the dread of being poisoned by his son, afterward Louis XI.

The English profited little by the execution of Joan. "We are lost," was the prediction of one of their own number who witnessed her death, "we have burned a saint." One by one their conquests were forced from them ; and when the Hundred Years' War ended in 1451, Calais alone remained in their possession.

Wars of the Roses.—While this struggle was going on in France, the young Henry VI. grew up into a feeble, weak-minded man. When he reached the age of twenty-three, he married Margaret of Anjou, a beautiful and resolute, but vindictive woman, in whose hands he left the chief control of the state.

The Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, who had opposed the marriage, soon felt the vengeance of the queen. His duchess had been already doomed to perpetual imprisonment for sorcery, on the charge that she had made a wax figure of the king, which she slowly melted with magical incantations before the fire that Henry's strength might in like manner waste away. The duke himself was arrested for treason, and was soon after found dead in prison.

The administration of Margaret and her favorite, the powerful Duke of Suffolk, speedily became obnoxious. The latter, after being condemned to exile, was seized and murdered at sea ; but this did not satisfy the people.

Headed by Jack Cade, a commoner who assumed the popular name of Mortimer, they broke out into insurrection (1450). Cade forced his way into London, and commenced pillaging the houses. But the rebels were repulsed, and Cade was taken and executed.

Richard, Duke of York, Henry's cousin, stood before the king in the order of succession, as his mother was the heiress of the family of Mortimer, and he was therefore the representative of the third son of Edward III. Spurred on by the affronts of the royal party and the growing imbecility of Henry, he determined to advance his claim. He accordingly entered into an alliance with the powerful Earl of Warwick (*wör'rik*), "the King-maker," defeated the king's forces on the field of St. Alban's (1455), captured Henry himself, and was declared protector. Thus began a thirty years' struggle between the houses of York and Lancaster, which cost England eighty princes of the royal blood and one-half her nobility. These civil wars were known as the Wars of the Roses, because the partisans of York adopted a white rose as their badge, those of Lancaster a red one.

Richard of York was killed in the battle of Wakefield Green. Queen Margaret had his head severed from his body, encircled with a mock diadem of paper, and placed on the walls of York as a ghastly warning to its people. The duke's second son, a boy of seventeen, was murdered in cool blood, while crossing Wakefield Bridge. Edward, the duke's eldest son, hastened to avenge his father's death; he routed the Lancastrian army, pushed on to London, assumed the royal dignity, and was proclaimed as King Edward IV. (1461).

House of York.—Edward IV. had scarcely seated himself on the throne when he was called to take the field against the undaunted Margaret. At Tow'ton a decisive battle took place, perhaps the bloodiest ever fought in

England, ending in the overthrow of the Lancastrians with the loss of half their army. In this desperate conflict, the Earl of Warwick, in order to revive the courage of his men, stabbed his horse before them, and kissing the hilt of his sword swore to share the fate of the meanest soldier.

In 1464, Edward won another complete victory at Hexham. After this battle, Queen Margaret, accompanied by her son, fled toward Scotland. In the depth of Hexham Forest, they were stopped by a robber; but the queen, fearlessly presenting the young prince, cried out, "Here, my friend! I trust to your loyalty the son of your king." So affected was the outlaw by her appeal that he conducted her to a place of safety, and there supplied her wants till an opportunity offered for her escape.

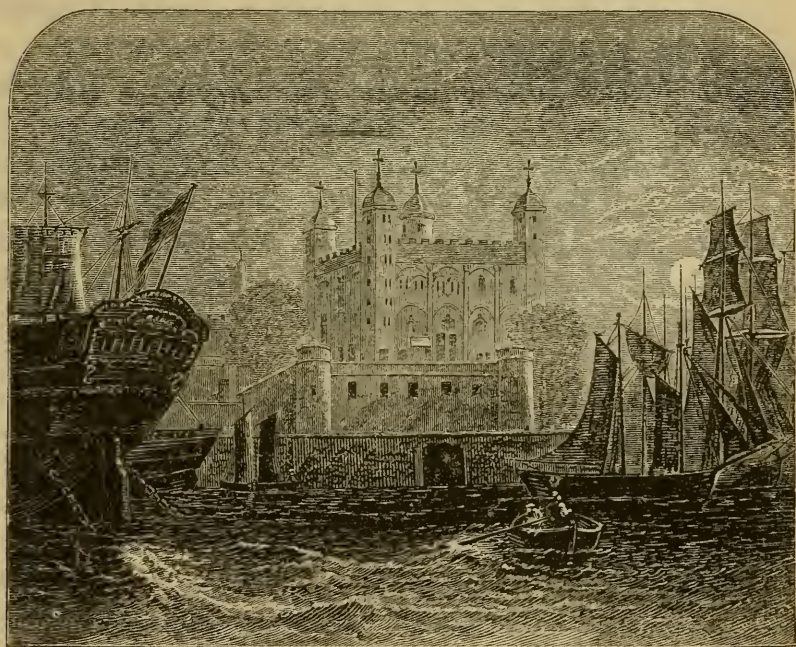
In 1469, the Earl of Warwick, who had been wrongfully dealt with by Edward, entered into a conspiracy with the Duke of Clarence, drove the king from England (1470), and restored the crown to Henry VI. But Edward soon re-appeared at the head of an army, Warwick was slain, and the hopes of the Lancastrians were finally overthrown on the field of Tewkesbury (1471).

Queen Margaret and her son fell into the hands of the victors. Edward demanded of the prince why he had invaded England. "To recover my father's crown and my own inheritance," was the reply. Upon this, it is affirmed that Edward struck the prisoner in the face with his gauntlet,—a signal for his brothers to thrust their swords into the prince's breast. Margaret was committed to the Tower; and the murder of her husband soon after has been attributed to the dagger of Richard, Duke of Gloucester.

The Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV., suspected of intriguing against him, was condemned to death, and a story was circulated that by his own choice he was drowned in a butt of malmsey wine.

In the thirteenth year of Edward Fourth's reign, the first printed book (on the Game of Chess) was produced in England. It was from the press of William Caxton, who brought over the newly-invented art from the continent.—Edward died in 1483, leaving two sons,—Edward, Prince of Wales, and Richard, Duke of York,—under the regency of their uncle, the Duke of Gloucester.

Edward V. reigned nominally in England for a few weeks after his father's death. But the Duke of Gloucester aspired to the throne, and proceeded to remove every



THE TOWER OF LONDON.

obstacle from his path. The relatives and friends of the prince were imprisoned or put to death without trial; and at last young Edward, with his brother, was lodged in the Tower. Shortly after, in a popular assembly, some persons hired for the purpose shouted, "God save King

Richard !” and the following day the Duke of Gloucester, after a show of unwillingness, assumed the coveted crown.

Richard III., not satisfied with his usurpation, determined to rid himself of his nephews, and dispatched assassins to the Tower, who smothered them with pillows as they lay asleep, and buried them at the foot of the stairs.

The news of this crime filled the nation with horror, and a plot was set on foot to offer the crown to Henry Tu’dor, Earl of Richmond, the representative of the House of Lancaster, on condition of his marrying Elizabeth, sister of Edward V., and rightful heir to the throne. To defeat this project, Richard proposed to marry the princess to his own son,—and, on the death of the latter, to wed her himself ; that he might make room for his niece, he is suspected of having poisoned his wife.

But Richard, now an object of general detestation, was deserted even by his most faithful adherents. The Earl of Richmond, encouraged by these defections, left Brittany, landed in England, and, being joined by many powerful nobles, met the army of Richard on Bosworth Field (1485).

At early dawn the conflict began. Richard fought like a lion. When he saw the day was going against him, he dashed into the thickest of the fray, killed the Lancastrian standard-bearer, and aimed a blow at Richmond himself. But, overpowered by numbers, he fell, and his blood tinged the water of a spring, from which some, even at the present day, refuse to drink. Lord Stanley picked up the crown, stained with gore, and placed it on Richmond’s head, while the soldiers shouted “Long live King Henry !”

That night the body of the usurper, naked and disfigured, was thrown across a horse and brought to Leicester for burial.

Close of the Valois Line in France.—**LOUIS XI.**, the Nero of France, was a contemporary of Edward IV. As

he had aided the Lancastrian party, Edward determined to punish him, and accordingly invaded his dominions and formally demanded the French crown. The English forces, however, were withdrawn on the payment of a large sum and the promise of 50,000 crowns a year.

Louis XI. was one of the most detestable and sanguinary monarchs that ever disgraced a throne. His maxim was, "He who knows not how to dissemble is not fit to reign." He put to death more than four thousand persons, taking a savage delight in their sufferings. Many of his nobles were loaded with chains and shut up in iron cages, the king coming often to insult them. At the execution of the Duke of Nemours (*neh-moor'*), Louis ordered his children to be placed beneath the scaffold, that they might be sprinkled with their parent's blood.—This monster, who is said to have quaffed the blood of infants for the purpose of renewing his exhausted frame, in spite of all his odious crimes, was honored with the title of "Most Christian King."

The reign of Louis XI. was a protracted contest with feudalism. By his perfidious policy he succeeded in elevating the royal authority above that of the princes and nobles, at one time his equals in power. The greatest of his rivals was Charles the Bold of Burgundy, who once seized the king and would have slain him had he not consented to a disgraceful treaty. On the death of Charles, Louis annexed part of his dominions to the French crown.

CHARLES VIII., the Affable, son of Louis, borne on by the extravagant hope of conquering Italy and expelling the Turks from Europe, crossed the Alps, and, after a brilliant career of victories, entered Naples in triumph (1495). But the Italians, aided by the emperor of Germany, subsequently expelled the French.

Charles was the last of the direct line of Valois. He was succeeded in 1498 by his cousin, the Duke of Orleans.

Plantagenet Kings of England.

Henry II,	acceded 1154.	Richard II,	1377.
Richard I., Cœur de Lion,	1189.	Henry IV. (Lancaster), .	1399.
John, Lackland,	1199.	Henry V.,	1413.
Henry III.,	1216.	Henry VI.,	1422.
Edward I., Longshanks,	1272.	Edward IV. (York), . . .	1461.
Edward II., of Carnarvon,	1307.	Edward V.,	1483.
Edward III.,	1327.	Richard III. (Gloucester),	1483.

 CHAPTER XXXIII.

RISE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

Ottoman Empire.—Many of the Turkish hordes that had been driven from Carizme by Genghis Khan took refuge in Asia Minor. There a pastoral chief of four hundred tents became the father of Oth'man, founder of an empire called from him the *Ottoman*, and ancestor of a line of sultans who overthrew the capital of the East and spread consternation by their victories in the very heart of Europe.

In 1299, Othman (*the bone-breaker*) penetrated into the Byzantine provinces. Towns and castles were garrisoned with the troops of the conqueror, and finally Pru'sa, the capital of Bithynia, surrendered to his son Orchan.

During the reign of Orchan, Constantinople being distracted by civil war, the Turks and Bulgarians were respectively appealed to for aid by the opposing parties. Ten thousand Ottoman horsemen were transported across the Hellespont in the vessels of the Greek emperor; many Thracian fortresses fell into their possession, which they subsequently refused to surrender to the Byzantine court, and thus the Ottoman power was established in Europe (1353).

Am'urath I., son of Orchan, reduced the whole of Thrace, and made the city of Adrianople (see Map, p. 156) the seat of his government and religion in the West. The warlike Slavonic tribes that dwelt between the Danube and the Adriatic were also subdued, and afterward became the staunchest supporters of the Ottoman power. While Amurath was going over the field after the last decisive engagement with the Servians, he was mortally stabbed by a wounded chief.

Amurath organized a military corps composed of Christian captives educated in arms and the Mohammedan faith. These were called Janizaries (*new soldiers*); they became the best-disciplined troops in Europe—the terror of Christian nations.

Baj'azet I., son of Amurath, surnamed the Lightning on account of his rapid movements, secured himself upon the throne by strangling his younger brother. In 1396 he defeated an army of 100,000 Hungarians, French, and Germans, led by Sigismund afterward emperor of Germany, who boasted that should the sky fall they could uphold it on their spears. In the pride of victory Bajazet vowed that his horse should eat a bushel of oats from the altar of St. Peter at Rome.

Meanwhile Constantinople, weakened by internal discord, her European and Asiatic territories in the hands of the Turks, was regarded by Bajazet as his certain prey; nor was it long before he appeared in front of the city with a besieging army. The emperor Manuel II. fled from his capital, and supplicated aid in Paris and London. But Charles VI. and Henry IV. were unable to assist him; and famine had almost opened the gates of Constantinople to Bajazet, when an unlooked-for deliverer appeared in Tamerlane, the Tartar conqueror, whose cruelties had already made his name a terror to the Ottomans.

The Janizaries of Bajazet met the Mongols on the

plains of Ango'ra in Asia Minor, where, after a bloody conflict, they were put to rout (1402). The sultan himself fought with the bravery of despair, but the Mongols threw a mantle over him and captured him alive. Tamerlane, who was playing chess with his son when the royal prisoner was brought to his tent, kept him standing at the door till the game was decided. Bajazet was then



BAJAZET IN THE TENT OF TAMERLANE.

courteously received, and treated at first with princely generosity ; but on his attempting to escape, as the story goes, he was loaded with chains, and thrust into an iron cage, against the bars of which he finally dashed out his

brains. The victory of Angora prolonged the existence of Constantinople for half a century.

Mohammed II., the Great, ascended the Ottoman throne in 1451. He was a blood-thirsty and licentious sovereign, a man of unbridled passions, who scrupled not to take life upon the slightest provocation. Once, when suspected by his Janizaries of being infatuated with a beautiful Syrian, he cut off her head and threw it among the soldiers, to convince them that he was not a slave to love.

Mohammed coveted Constantinople for his capital, and, well aware of the effeminacy of its people, determined to make it his own. But Constantine XIII., the last of the Eastern emperors, though his resources were limited and his army was reduced to 7,000 men, resolved not to give up his birthright without a struggle.

In the spring of 1453, Mohammed arrived at the gates of Constantinople with an army 258,000 strong, and directed his battering-rams and enormous cannon against the walls. One of his guns hurled balls of stone weighing six hundred pounds. For fifty-three days the insignificant garrison withstood his attacks, but they were at last overwhelmed by swarms of Janizaries. The emperor, as he fought almost single-handed with the foe, vainly called on some Christian to cut off his head and hide it from the infidels. Struck down by an unknown hand, he was buried beneath heaps of the slain; but his body was afterward recognized by the gold eagles embroidered on his buskins, and Mohammed exposed his head as a trophy of victory. The crescent henceforth waved from the towers of the fallen city, which became the Turkish capital.

The subjection of Greece followed, and Mohammed even aspired to the conquest of Italy. The pope was preparing for flight, when his fears were dispelled by the death of the Ottoman sultan (1481).

Se'lim I., grandson of Mohammed, defeated the Per-

sians, and conquered Egypt, Tripoli, and extensive tracts in Asia.

Poland.—While the great Ottoman Empire was thus erected on firm foundations in the South, the powerful kingdom of Poland arose in central Europe. The word *Poland* implies a plain, and the country so called, the ancient Sarma'tia, was peopled by Slavonians. Toward the close of the tenth century, the Poles were converted to Christianity; and, in the eleventh, Boleslas the Brave invaded Prussia and Russia, extended his conquests beyond the Oder, the Carpathian Mountains, and the Dniester (see Map, p. 386), encouraged commerce, and civilized his subjects.

Poland, however, first took an important position among the nations of Europe in the fourteenth century, when Cas'imir III., the Great, a prudent and enlightened prince, further extended her domains, strengthened them with fortresses, and founded the University of Cracow (*kra'ko*). On his death (1370), Poland became an elective monarchy, and the crown was united with that of Hungary in the person of Louis the Great, one of the most powerful kings of the Middle Ages.

Louis was succeeded by a Lithuanian prince, whose dominions, lying on the Baltic coast north of the River Niemen, became absorbed in Poland. Through his efforts many of the Lithuanians, who worshipped fire, trees, and reptiles, were converted to Christianity.

Occupying as it did a frontier position with reference to the western nations, Poland, in conjunction with Hungary, was at a later date obliged to meet formidable invasions of Turks, and with varied success. Its people were improved and its dominions increased by a wise administration of the government, until under Casimir IV. (1445–1492) we find its territories stretching from the shores of the Baltic to the mouth of the Danube.

1400 A. D.—Bajazet sultan of Turkey; capital, Adrianople. Tamerlane, the Tartar, in the midst of his career of conquest. Russia tributary to the Mongols. Medicis in Florence; Viscontis in Milan. Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, united under Margaret, “the Semiramis of the North.” Charles VI., of France, midway of his wretched reign. Henry IV., of England, invading Scotland. Thomas à Kempis, a renowned German ascetic writer, twenty years old; afterward author of the “Imitation of Christ,” translated into every civilized language.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

PERIOD OF MARITIME DISCOVERIES.

Spain.—We must now return to the history of Spain, which we left on page 177. This country, including modern Portugal, about the middle of the eleventh century comprised several Christian states, and a number of petty Moorish sovereignties weakened by internal strife. The Christian princes, however, were prevented by similar dissensions from combining against their common foe, and in 1238 the Moorish kingdom of Granada (*grā-nah'dā*) was founded.

In 1479 Ferdinand V., the Catholic, became king of Aragon; his wife Isabella had previously inherited the sovereignty of Castile and Leon. Thus all the Christian principalities in Spain, except Navarre, were united under one sceptre.

Ferdinand and Isabella rigidly administered justice, and restored peace to their dominions, which had long suffered from civil commotions. Filled with a desire to propagate the Christian religion and suppress heresy, these sovereigns introduced the Inquisition, a court authorized by the pope to try all persons accused of differing from the established faith. This institution became the terror

of Jews and Mohammedans, and even of the Spanish nobles and clergy. On the slightest suspicion they were seized, "tried" under circumstances of impenetrable secrecy, put to the torture to extort a confession of guilt, and in many cases given to the flames, while the crown was enriched with their wealth.

One of the chief events of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was the conquest of Granada, the last stronghold of the Mohammedans in Spain. For eight months the city, crowded with starving people and distracted by rival factions, held out against an army of seventy thousand. Its luxuriant plain was the scene of frequent conflicts between the Christian knights and Moorish cavaliers; the feats of valor there performed were long celebrated in the ballads of chivalry.

Isabella herself, richly attired in complete armor, rode through the camp encouraging her soldiers; while the Moorish ladies toiled upon the ramparts and cheered their defenders with their presence. But famine and insubordination at length compelled the Moslem king to capitulate; he surrendered his capital on condition that the inhabitants should remain undisturbed in their religious faith and the possession of their property. Thus terminated in 1492 the Saracen empire in Spain, after an existence of nearly eight centuries.

The Moors were for a time allowed freedom of worship, but they were eventually compelled either to embrace Christianity or leave the country. Thousands departed from their native land, and those who remained lived in constant dread of the cruelties of the Inquisition. By such intolerance Spain lost multitudes of her most useful and thrifty inhabitants.

Portugal, the Lusita'nia of the Romans, which had been conquered by the Moors, was partly recovered at the close of the eleventh century by the king of Leon and

Castile. Its complete independence was secured under Count Alfonso (1139), who, after defeating the Moors in a great battle near the Ta'gus, was saluted as king by his followers on the field which his valor had won.

During the reign of John I., the Great, the Portuguese discovered Madeira and the Azores'. After the death of John, in 1433, Portugal became the most enterprising country in Europe. Arduous voyages were undertaken; the whole of the western coast of Africa was explored; and in 1497 Vasco da Gama (*vah'sko dah gah'mah*) doubled the Cape of Good Hope, sailed across the Indian Ocean, and in the following year landed on the Malabar' coast. Here the Portuguese found fertile regions and partially civilized nations, and Vasco returned to Lisbon loaded with the rich products of the East.

King Emanuel the Fortunate encouraged his subjects in this new career of commerce and discovery. They soon gained the control of the Eastern trade, and established a vast colonial empire—the wonder and envy of the world.

Discovery of America.—While the Portuguese were thus searching for a route to India, Christopher Columbus, a Genoese navigator, became convinced that the earth was round, and that he could reach Asia by sailing across the unknown Atlantic. For several years he applied in vain to various European governments for men and ships; at last, in 1492, Queen Isabella of Spain furnished him with three small vessels, and he set sail from Palos (*pah'loce*). So sure was Columbus that he would reach Asia that he carried a letter from King Ferdinand to the Grand Khan of Tartary.

After a long and anxious voyage he landed on one of the Baha'ma Islands, which he called San Salvador'. Within a few months, Cuba and Hispanio'la (Hayti) were discovered. In Cuba the Spaniards first saw the potato used

as an article of food, and the dried leaves of the tobacco-plant smoked.

The simple natives regarded the Europeans as visitors from the sun, and willingly exchanged lumps of gold for glass beads and nails. It is told of one Indian that, having obtained a small bell for four ounces of gold, he fled to the woods with his prize, lest the Spaniard should repent of his bad bargain and demand back the bell.

Columbus left a colony on Hispaniola, and returned to Spain in 1493 with numerous specimens of the products of the New World—gold, tropical plants, birds of brilliant plumage, and several natives. He made three subsequent voyages, in one of which he reached the main-land of South America; still the continent which Columbus had discovered was not named from him, but from a Florentine, Americus Vesputius (*ves-pu'she-us*), who afterward took part in several exploring expeditions and was the first to publish a description of the newly-discovered lands.

American Indians.—At the time of its discovery, America was occupied by men of a copper color, with long black hair, and of erect agile forms. Their progenitors are supposed to have crossed from Asia in early ages and to have spread over the continent. Columbus called these people *Indians*, for he supposed he had landed on the borders of India. They dwelt in rude wigwams made of bark or skins. Hunting and fishing, together with what little maize, or Indian corn, they raised, supplied them with the means of subsistence.

The Indians were generally brave, cautious, and hospitable to strangers. They worshipped the Great Spirit, and believed that the souls of the good, after death, enjoyed everlasting pleasures in the happy hunting-grounds.

The young Indian was trained in athletic exercises, and taught to endure hunger and fatigue. He learned to wield the war-club, and hurl the tomahawk. His senses

were rendered wonderfully acute, so that he could read the slightest signs in the forest or detect the cunningly-concealed trail of an enemy. The warrior took pride in controlling his feelings, and endured the tortures of the stake, often the prisoner's fate, without a groan. Each tribe was nominally under a chief, who took the lead in battle and decided important matters around the council-fire.

Early Conquests and Settlements.—In the latter part of the fifteenth century, the English began a series of voyages which resulted in the discovery of Newfoundland (*nu'fund-land*) and the exploration of the Atlantic coast from Labrador to Florida.

For Spain, however, was reserved the honor of penetrating to the Pacific. Balbo'a, the commander of a feeble settlement on the Gulf of Da'rien, learned from a native chief of a great ocean lying in a southerly direction. Braving the perils of the wilderness and the attacks of hostile Indians, he succeeded in crossing the Isthmus, and took possession of the Pacific in the name of the king his master (1513).

MEXICO, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, was a rich empire under the dominion of Montezu'ma, emperor of the Aztecs, the most civilized of the North American aborigines. They had followed the Toltecs, a race that came from the North in the seventh century, occupied Mexico for four hundred years, and then settled in Central America.

The Aztecs cultivated the arts, were skilful agriculturists, cloth-weavers, and exquisite workers of the precious metals. Their cities were adorned with imposing edifices; and their capital, Mexico, founded in 1325, glittered with magnificent palaces and temples. The people communicated with each other by means of hieroglyphical paintings.

But the Aztecs were idolaters, and sacrificed captives taken in war to their false gods. After the hearts of the victims had been first offered at the feet of the idols, their flesh was cooked and eaten at festive banquets.

The Spaniards of Cuba having learned of the Aztec Empire, an expedition was set on foot for its subjugation,



SPANIARDS DESTROYING AN AZTEC IDOL.

under the command of Cortez, a cruel, avaricious man, but energetic and zealous for the extension of his religion. With about six hundred soldiers and only ten small cannon, Cortez fearlessly marched to the Mexican capital, destroying the idols and erecting in their stead crosses and images of the Virgin.

Montezuma was seized and perished in captivity. Guatemozin (*gwah-te-mo'zin*), the last of the Aztec emperors, was hanged by order of Cortez, and for three hundred years the supremacy of Spain was acknowledged in Mexico.—The bigoted conquerors destroyed vast libraries of the Aztec picture-writing—an irreparable loss to the world.

PERU, among all the countries of the New World, when Europeans first visited its shores, was foremost in power and riches. Its inhabitants were a peaceable industrious race, far advanced in the arts. Stories of the vast wealth of Peru came to the ears of Pizar'ro, an unprincipled Spanish adventurer. Thirsting for its treasures, with a small force he invaded the empire, defeated its disciplined armies, and imprisoned the Inca, or Peruvian monarch. The unfortunate captive, to effect his release, agreed to fill the room in which he was confined as high as he could reach with gold; but after collecting more than fifteen million dollars' worth of precious ornaments, he was strangled by the perfidious Spaniard. Peru thus became subject to Spain (1533).

Voyages and Discoveries.

- 1492. October 12th, Columbus discovers America.
- 1497. Cab'ots, commissioned by Henry VII., of England, discover the main-land of America (New'foundland or Labrador').
- 1498. Columbus discovers the main-land of South America.
- 1499. First voyage of the Florentine Amerigo Vespucci.
- 1500. Brazil discovered by the Portuguese Cabral (*kah-brahl'*).
- 1501. Coast of North America explored by the Portuguese Cortereal.
- 1502. Coast of Central America explored by Columbus.
- 1505. Ceylon visited by the Portuguese Almeida (*ahl-ma'e duh*).
- 1509. Sumatra reached by Portuguese explorers.
- 1511. Malacca conquered by the Portuguese Albuquerque (*ahl-boo-ker'ka*).
- 1512. Florida discovered by the Spaniard Ponce de Leon.
- 1513. September 29th, Pacific Ocean discovered by Balboa.
- 1517. Mexico discovered by Francisco Fernandez de Cordova.
- 1520. Magellan enters the Pacific by the Strait of Magellan.

CHAPTER XXXV.

*BEGINNINGS OF MODERN HISTORY.—FIRST
TUDOR KINGS IN ENGLAND.*

MODERN HISTORY cannot properly be said to commence at any single year or with any one event. The fifteenth century, however, may be regarded as having witnessed its birth. The darkness had for some time been lifting, glimmerings of light had been breaking upon the nations, and the gray dawn was now followed by the brightness of day.

Among the changes which mark the beginning of a new era in the history of the world, are the following : The rise of consolidated governments ; the formation of a middle class, the bone and sinew of society ; the revival of taste and learning ; improvements in philosophy ; the spread of knowledge and of a spirit of free inquiry ; the growth of art and science ; maritime explorations and discoveries, following the extended use of the mariner's compass ; and especially several great inventions, which show that the human mind had thrown off its lethargy.

The Art of Printing.—Foremost among these wonderful inventions was that of *printing*. This art, rudely practised by the Chinese twelve hundred years before, was perfected in Germany about 1450. The idea originated with Coster, of Harlem in Holland, by accident. He one day picked up a branch, and after amusing himself by carving some letters on it, wrapped it in a piece of paper and fell asleep. On waking, he found the paper moistened with rain and distinctly impressed with the letters which he had engraved. The practical application of this principle at once suggested itself, and Coster was not long in devising a process for taking impressions from wooden blocks. Not, however, till movable types were

employed by Gutenberg (*goo'ten-berg*), of Mentz, was the invention made available.

The first book was printed by Gutenberg and his partner Faust, in 1455. It was the Bible, and so rapidly were copies of it produced that they were looked upon as the work of magic. Faust was apprehended as a wizard, and to save himself from the flames had to make known the secret of his art.

The facilities for printing were greatly increased by Faust's son-in-law Schöf'fer, who invented punches by which sharpness and finish were given to the type. Before the end of the century, 8,509 works had been published.

Among the important discoveries that followed the invention of printing, may be mentioned that of the true theory of the solar system by the Prussian Coper'nicus. Setting aside the time-honored opinions of centuries, supported by the authority of Aristotle himself, Coper'nicus taught that the earth turns on its axis from west to east, and along with the other planets revolves round the sun.

Henry VII.—It was at the commencement of this new-born effulgence which illumined Europe, that Henry VII., after the victory of Bosworth, ascended the throne of England (1485). The following year he married Elizabeth, in whom the rights of the House of York were vested, and thus the two Roses were united. Such, however, was his aversion to the Yorkists, that he treated his wife with harshness and neglect.

Henry had not long held the throne before a movement was made to drive him from it. The birth of a young prince in 1486, threatening to make the crown hereditary in his family, aroused his enemies to action. A lad named Lambert Simnel was induced to personate the nephew of Edward IV., the young Earl of Warwick, at

that time confined in the Tower of London. Lambert was proclaimed king in Ireland; but his adherents were defeated, he was taken prisoner, and made a scullion in the king's kitchen.

After this failure, a rumor was circulated that the young Duke of York, who was believed to have been murdered by Richard III. in the Tower, had escaped and was still alive. The person of this prince was counterfeited by a mysterious youth called Perkin Warbeck, who received the appellation of "the White Rose of England." He was recognized in France as the rightful heir to the English throne, and so far imposed on James IV. of Scotland that the latter gave him a near relative in marriage. Many of the people and some of the nobles, believing in the justice of Warbeck's claim, openly declared for him. Even Sir William Stanley, to whom King Henry owed both his life and crown, when accused of being a partisan of the pretender, admitted the charge, and in spite of his previous services was executed.

Warbeck at length with a few companions, and in the hope of being joined by the people, invaded England; but his heart failed him at sight of the royal standards, and he hastily decamped, leaving his followers to the mercy of the king. Most of them received pardon; their cowardly leader afterward surrendered, and was committed to the Tower. Having made a public admission of his imposture, he would no doubt have been spared but for a subsequent attempt to escape, for which he was brought to the scaffold.

These difficulties over, Henry, no longer in dread of conspiracy, enjoyed a peaceful reign. The wife of Warbeck was brought to court, and became an attendant of the queen. In compliment to her beauty, the name of "the White Rose," which had been given to her husband, was transferred to her.

During the reign of Henry VII., the nobles being al-

lowed to sell their lands, the feudal system received a death-blow. A law for the suppression of retainers was also put in force ; and, as an evidence of the king's regard for the public coffers, it is related that, after being magnificently entertained by his devoted supporter the Earl of Oxford, who imprudently assembled his liveried vassals to receive their sovereign, he fined his host £10,000 for breaking the statute.

Henry sought to increase the influence of his family by foreign alliances. His eldest daughter Margaret was given in marriage to James IV. of Scotland ; and Arthur, Prince of Wales, received the hand of Catharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. Prince Arthur, however, shortly died of the plague, and his widow was then betrothed to his younger brother Henry.

Avarice was the ruling passion of Henry VII. He is said to have left £1,800,000. On his death-bed he enjoined his son to make restitution to any who had suffered from his exactions.

Henry VIII. succeeded his father in 1509. Immediately after his accession he married Catharine, and for a time he was at peace with all the world. In 1512, however, he was induced by the pope to join a league against the French, who had established themselves in northern Italy. Henry led an army into France, and gained a great victory in the Battle of Spurs, so called because the French troops at sight of the English put spurs to their horses and fled. The French army was saved from total rout by the celebrated Bay'ard, "the knight without fear and without reproach." Peace with France soon followed, but troubles arose with a later king, Francis I., the history of which will be given in a subsequent chapter.

FLODDEN FIELD.—James IV., of Scotland, though married to Henry's sister, took part with the French king against him. While his brother-in-law was engaged in

France, he crossed the English border with a powerful army. On Flod'den Field a desperate battle took place (1513), in which James fell with ten thousand of his followers.

In early life James IV. had headed a rebellion which was the cause of his father's death. To atone for his crime, he wore an iron chain to which a new link was added every year. Because this chain was not found at Flod'den, the Scottish peasants would not believe that their king had fallen. After his death Queen Margaret became regent for her infant son, James V., and peace was made with England.

CARDINAL WOLSEY (*wöðö'ze*) was one of the most distinguished men of Henry's reign. Of obscure origin, he studied for the church, and becoming a favorite of the king was rapidly promoted, till at last he united in himself the dignities of Cardinal and Lord High Chancellor of the kingdom. His princely establishment contained five hundred persons. On public occasions he was attended by nobles and prelates; before him was borne a cross on a pillar of silver, while a train of mules followed with crimson-covered coffers on their backs. His ambition led him to aspire to the papal chair, but without success.

HENRY'S MARRIAGES.—For several years Henry lived happily with Catharine. Five children were born to them, of whom the princess Mary alone survived. At length the king became enamored of one of the queen's maids of honor, Anne Boleyn (*böðö'en*), and to make room for her he determined to divorce Catharine, on the ground that she was not his legal wife, having been previously married to his brother. But in this he was opposed by the pope.

Wolsey, who had at first approved of the king's plan, would not finally take the responsibility of favoring the divorce; he was accordingly dismissed from court in disgrace. Pursued by the malice of Anne, he was at length

arrested for treason, and on his way to London to assert his innocence was taken sick and died. On his death-bed he lamented that he had not discharged his duty to his God as faithfully as he had served his king.

To solve the problem of the divorce, Henry, though he had gained the title of "Defender of the Faith" by writing against "the new learning" of Luther, now renounced the authority of the pope and had himself declared head of the church. Those who refused to acknowledge him as such were mercilessly dealt with. Sir Thomas More, a man eminent for ability and virtue, denying the king's supremacy, was condemned and executed. On the scaffold he kissed the headsman, saying, "To-day thou wilt render me the greatest service in the power of any mortal."

Thomas Cranmer, a learned doctor who had written in favor of the divorce, was made Archbishop of Canterbury and prime minister after the death of Wolsey. He pronounced the king's marriage with Catharine invalid, and his union with Anne Boleyn lawful. Anne became the mother of the princess Elizabeth, but soon after lost the affection of her husband, and was beheaded. The next morning Henry married Lady Jane Seymour, who died the year following, after giving birth to Prince Edward.

Henry's fourth wife was Anne of Cleves, who, disappointing him in her personal appearance, was soon repudiated. An Italian duchess whom Henry next invited to share his throne, replied that if she had two heads she might listen to him, but as she had only one she preferred to keep it on her shoulders. Catharine Howard, the fifth queen, was executed; and in 1543 Henry married his sixth wife, Catharine Parr, "the discreetest and most meritorious of his queens," who owed it rather to her own tact than the king's regard that she outlived him.

At first an accomplished and popular prince, Henry

ultimately became an odious tyrant, trampling on the liberties of the people, giving loose reins to his passions, and pursuing to the last extremity those who crossed his selfish purposes or otherwise incurred his resentment. He finally grew to be excessively corpulent, and whether his bloated frame or his ungoverned temper be considered was a most repulsive object. Happily his last queen obtained some influence over him, and exercised it for good until his death, which occurred in 1547.

During this reign, looking-glasses and carpets came into use. Toward its close, carrots, turnips, and other vegetables, began to be cultivated. Before this so little attention was paid to gardening in England, that when Henry's first wife, Catharine of Aragon, wanted a salad, she had to order it from Holland.

1500 A. D.—Henry VII. encouraging the arts of peace in England. Louis XII., of France, pushing his arms in Italy. Ferdinand and Isabella reigning in Spain; Ximenes (*ze-me'neez*), Isabella's confessor, and cardinal in 1507, one of the master-minds of the age. Portugal, under Emanuel, engaged in a glorious career of maritime discovery; Lisbon, having eclipsed Venice, becomes the great seat of trade. Maximilian I., emperor of Germany, recognizes (1499) the independence of the Swiss republic. Alexander Borgia, the wicked pope. Ivan III. (*e-vahn'*), the Great, autocrat of all the Russias.



CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE REFORMATION.

The Reformation, a great religious movement by which it was sought to correct errors and corruptions in the church, was the principal event of the sixteenth century. Too many of the clergy, forgetful of higher interests, were at this time sunk in ignorance and worldliness, or

devoted to the study of art and philosophy. The power which the popes had once wielded over foreign princes had now greatly dwindled. The doctrine of papal infallibility (that the pope was incapable of erring) began to be doubted; and people in various quarters, envious of the wealth and privileges of the clergy and disgusted with their dissolute lives, ardently desired to escape from the domination of the church: they only awaited a competent leader. Such a one Germany found in Luther, France in Calvin, and Switzerland in Zuinglius (*zwing'gle-us*).

Previous Attempts at Reformation. — Dissatisfaction with tenets and usages which it was claimed were unknown to the primitive church, and a disposition to exercise freedom of thought in religious matters, had been manifested from time to time in different countries.

As early as the twelfth century, the Albigen'ses, who dwelt in the south of France, a district which the old Roman civilization had never entirely deserted, rejected many established doctrines, such as the sovereignty of the pope, the adoration of saints and images, and the confession of sins to priests. Count Raymond of Toulouse (*too-looz'*) supported his people in their opinions; while the troubadours, ceasing to celebrate their ladies' charms or the brave deeds of knights, poured out their indignation against priestly oppression in the musical tongue of Provence.

The bold opposition of the Albigeneses finally led Pope Innocent III. to proclaim a crusade against them; whereupon a number of French barons swept into *Lan-gue-doc'*, and desolated its fruitful fields. "Slay them all, God will know his own," was the order of one of the leaders; and this spirit seems to have animated the rest. The sword was not sheathed till the "heretics" were almost exterminated.

Wycliffe, "the morning star of the Reformation," has

already been referred to as having raised his voice against the errors prevalent in the church. His doctrines survived him, and paved the way for radical religious changes in England and Germany.

John Huss and Jerome of Prague preached the tenets of Wycliffe in Bohemia early in the century after his death. Both were condemned to the stake by the Council of Constance ; but the followers of Huss flew to arms to avenge his death. In a long war with the emperor Sigismund, they were at first successful, but were eventually reduced to submission. The same council decreed that the body of Wycliffe should be taken from the grave and burned. The sentence was executed. His ashes were thrown into an adjoining stream, which conveyed them to the ocean, and the ocean carried them to all lands. "So the ashes of Wycliffe are the emblem of his doctrine, which is now dispersed all the world over."

Martin Luther, the celebrated German reformer, was born in a village of Saxony, in 1483. The son of a poor miner, he was at times obliged to support himself, while at school, by singing from door to door. The sudden death of a friend, who was struck down at his side by lightning in 1505, determined Luther to consecrate himself to the church ; he entered a cloister, and became a monk. Three years later, he was called to be a professor in the University of Wittenberg. A visit to Rome brought to his notice the impure lives of the clergy, and he returned to Germany filled with grief and indignation.

In 1516 Luther learned that a monk named Tetzel was selling through the German towns *indulgences*, which he declared would remit the sins of all who purchased them. These indulgences were originally exemptions from public penance, and as such they had been offered by Pope Urban II. to as many as would join in the Crusades. In the course of time, however, they came to be sold. The pro-

ceeds, at first used in alms-giving, the redemption of captives, and similar good works, were afterward not unfrequently devoted to other purposes ; in this case, the object was the completion of St. Peter's Church at Rome. Tetzel, stopping at no misrepresentation in his eagerness to make sales, grossly imposed on the credulity of the people. Luther exclaimed against this traffic ; his arguments were printed, and within a month had spread throughout Christendom. Several learned men disputed them ; but Luther continued his denunciations, and was in consequence excommunicated by Pope Leo X. in 1520.

In the following year the Diet of Worms was held, and Luther, in the presence of this imperial court, dauntlessly maintained his ground. As he approached the city, a confidential adviser sent him an urgent message not to go on ; but he replied, " Were there as many devils in Worms as tiles on the roofs, yet would I go." The diet published an edict against him, signed by the emperor of Germany (Charles V.), which condemned him as a heretic, and put under the ban of the empire all who should offer him shelter or support. Henceforth Luther was irrevocably separated from Rome, and his efforts were devoted to the organization of a new church, independent of papal authority, and based on what he considered " the pure truth of Scripture."

Notwithstanding all opposition, the Reformation gained a strong foothold in northern Germany. In 1529, seven powerful princes, together with fifteen imperial cities, entered a solemn *protest* against the decree of another diet, held at Spire, which prohibited the further dissemination of the new doctrines. From this time the reformers were called *Protestants*.

The Protestant German princes were soon obliged to form an alliance for the defence of their religion and liberties. War with the emperor followed. After many

reverses, they secured freedom of worship by the Treaty of Augsburg, in 1555.

Luther died peacefully in 1546, before this struggle commenced. For the last twenty years of his life he enjoyed domestic happiness with his wife, once a nun, whom



STATUE OF ERASMUS AT
ROTTERDAM.

he married, as he said, "to please his father and tease the pope." His was the decided character of an outspoken, intrepid, energetic reformer,—of violent temper and impatient of contradiction, but neither malignant nor unforgiving. Various grand tunes and hymns attest his love of music and skill in composition. He left to his countrymen a precious legacy in his simple and forcible translation of the Bible, from the appearance of which German literature may almost be said to date its origin, and

which to this day remains the favorite version with Protestant churches that use the German tongue.

Early in his career Luther formed a lasting attachment for Melanc'thon, a man of gentleness and prudence who devoted his genius to the cause of the Reformation. Of a different stamp was the Dutch scholar Erasmus, pre-eminent as a restorer of learning; who, though not a follower of Luther, did much to forward the Reformation by his satirical writings against the Roman church.

Spread of the Reformation.—While the events just related were taking place in Germany, the principles of the reformed faith were propagated in the neighboring countries.

In Switzerland, Zuinglius was its great apostle ; the cantons were divided in opinion, and recourse was had to arms. The Protestants were routed ; while Zuinglius was stooping to console a dying soldier on the field of battle, he received a fatal lance-thrust. Thus the Reformation was arrested in Switzerland ; but it afterward received a fresh impulse from the efforts of John Calvin, who had meanwhile become its champion at Geneva.

Calvin was born in France ; but, having renounced the tenets of the established church, he was compelled to fly from his native land. Francis I., then king, was a violent enemy of Protestantism, and did his utmost to extirpate it from his dominions ; notwithstanding, the doctrines of Calvin spread in France as well as in other countries. The French Protestants, obliged to shun the light of day to escape their enemies, were contemptuously styled *Hu'-gue-nots*, either from a local word meaning *night-walker*, or because they assembled for worship in underground cellars near *Hugo's* gate in the city of Tours.

In Spain and Italy the progress of the Reformation was checked by the Inquisition. In England the authority of the pope was renounced by Henry VIII., as we have seen, because he refused to sanction the king's divorce from Catharine of Aragon. Henry, however, still remained a firm believer in the doctrines of Rome ; he only substituted his own supremacy for that of the pope. The reformation of the English church was really commenced in the reign of Henry's successor.

Though the reformers were all violently opposed to the church of Rome, there were irreconcilable points of difference in their several creeds which prevented them from uniting in one church. Lutheranism prevailed in Germany, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden ; the Calvinistic doctrines, in Switzerland, France, and England.

The Reformation did not affect the Greek church,

though the Protestants tried to secure for their doctrines the approval of the Patriarch of Constantinople.

The Jesuits.—While the Protestants were thus divided, an association founded by Loyo'la, a Spanish soldier (1534), arose for the support and extension of the Catholic faith. This was the order of the Jesuits, or the Society of Jesus. Its members, though at first ridiculed as enthusiasts (for they projected the conversion of the world), were finally recognized by the pope after taking a vow of unqualified obedience to him.

The followers of Loyola devoted their fortunes and lives to the cause they had taken in hand. They stopped at nothing that would advance the interests of their order and religion; no obstacle was too great to be overcome, no land too distant to be reached, no danger too appalling to be encountered. In the cities of India, China, and Japan, their zealous preaching made many converts; in Paraguay, they instructed two hundred thousand natives in the industrial arts and the religion of their church; while in North America they established missions at various points, in wildernesses which they were the first to explore, from the Great Lakes to Mexico.

The labors of Francis Xavier (*zav'e-er*) are particularly noteworthy. He is said to have planted his faith in fifty different kingdoms, and to have numbered his converts by hundreds of thousands.

Era of the Reformation.

Universities and libraries in various European cities. Popular education advocated by Luther and Melancthon. Flourishing period of German painters—Albert Dürer (celebrated also as an engraver); Kran'ach; and Holbein (*hol'vine*), patronized by Henry VIII. "Honest Hans Sachs," the cobbler-poet of Nuremberg, author of six thousand pieces. Rabelais (*rah-beh-la'*), a celebrated French satirist. Riches beginning to pour into Spain from the New World.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

WARS OF CHARLES V. AND FRANCIS I.

Germany, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, was governed by Maximilian I., an emperor of chivalric spirit and valiant deeds, called "the last of the knights." His means, however, were inadequate to the objects which he undertook, and his wars were generally unsuccessful. He was obliged to acknowledge the independence of the Swiss, and in 1516 to surrender the duchy of Milan to the French.

Maximilian died in 1519; and at once Charles I. of Spain, Francis I. of France, and Henry VIII. of England, entered the lists for the imperial crown. From his illustrious grandparents (Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy on the father's side, on the mother's Ferdinand and Isabella) Charles had already received a goodly heritage—Austria, the Netherlands, and Spain with its large dependencies. The electors made this young king emperor, and Charles I. of Spain became Charles V. of Germany, to the great mortification of his rival Francis.

Charles V. was now the mightiest monarch Europe had seen since Charlemagne. Nor was his power at all diminished by his relinquishing, as he soon did, his Austrian dominions to Ferdinand, a brother devoted to his interests. The rapid growth of the House of Austria soon excited the fears of the weaker states; and as Charles also claimed Milan, which had been conquered by Francis, the latter, aided by the Swiss, took the field against him, to preserve his own possessions and maintain the balance of power—from this time recognized as an important object in European politics.

Before hostilities commenced, both strove to gain the support of King Henry of England. Francis solicited an

interview, and Henry swore that he would never cut his beard until he had visited "his good brother." Francis made a similar vow, which he kept, and long beards consequently became fashionable in France. But Henry forgot his oath, and even received Charles V. in England before sailing for the continent.

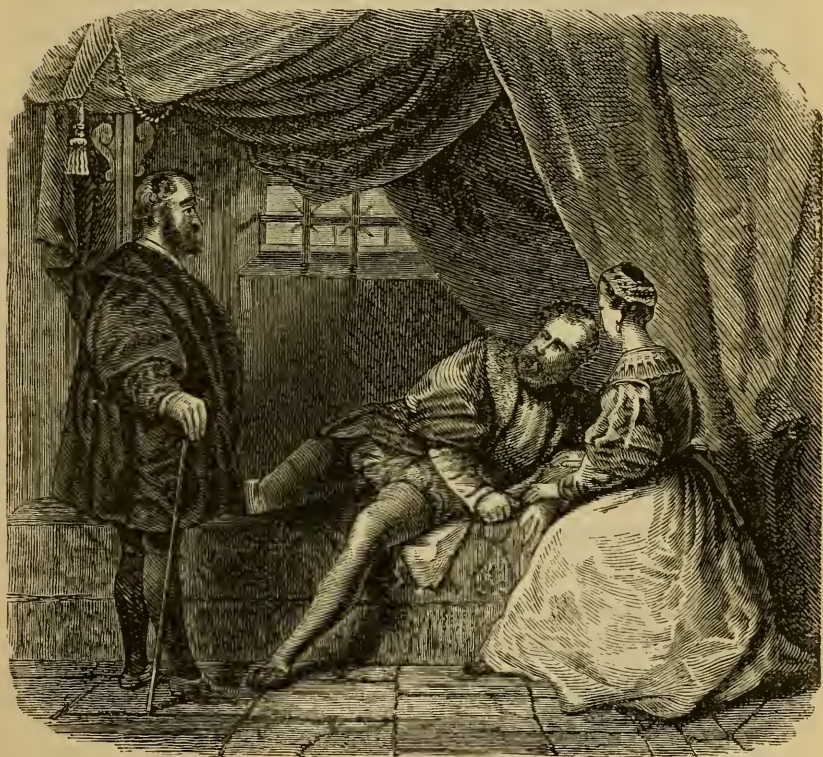
The scene of the meeting between the kings of England and France was called the Field of the Cloth of Gold, on account of the magnificent pavilions, adorned with embroidery, tapestry, and gold, which were erected for their accommodation. Two weeks were passed in banquets and tournaments. At the close of a day's sport, Henry suddenly seized Francis by the collar, exclaiming, "Come, brother, I must have a fall with you." Francis, who was a skilful wrestler, accepted the challenge, and after a short struggle threw Henry with great force. The English king regained his feet without any appearance of bad temper; but it is said that he never forgot the defeat.

After visiting Francis, Henry had an interview with the politic Charles. The latter craftily flattered him with the hope of regaining the dominions of his ancestors in France, and won the influence of Cardinal Wolsey by presents and promises to aid him in attaining the papal dignity. Wolsey was at this time all-powerful; so a league was soon formed by the pope, the emperor, and the king of England, against Francis.

COMMENCEMENT OF HOSTILITIES.—In northern Italy the imperial troops were successful; Milan was recovered (1521), and the French were driven beyond the Alps. Burning to remove this disgrace, Francis invaded Italy with a powerful army, retook Milan, and in 1525 laid siege to Pavia (*pah-ve'ah*). The Duke of Bour'bon, who had deserted to the emperor in consequence of injuries received from Francis, came to the relief of the garrison. In the battle which ensued, he gained a complete victory.

The French king had his horse killed under him, but continued fighting against a host of enemies. When sinking under his wounds, he was recognized, and surrendered his sword. The news of this defeat he announced to his mother in the brief sentence, "Madam, all is lost but honor."

Francis fell sick in his prison at Madrid, and was there visited by his devoted sister, Marguerite (*mar-greet'*) of Valois, and his imperial captor. To obtain his release, he



CHARLES V. VISITING FRANCIS I. IN PRISON.

was obliged to submit to the most humiliating terms—to cede Burgundy to Charles, surrender the sovereignty of Flanders, and give up all claim to Naples and Milan. But having thus obtained his freedom, he was absolved from

fulfilling his engagements by the pope, with whom, together with the Italian cities, he formed a confederacy against the emperor. Henry VIII., who had been slighted by Charles after the capture of Francis and was jealous of the emperor's increasing power, also joined the league.

This war, in the course of which Rome was stormed by the imperial troops under the Duke of Bourbon, continued till 1529, when Francis became exhausted and discouraged, while the attention of Charles was directed to the progress of the Reformation and the incursions of the Turks. The points at issue were adjusted by the mother of Francis and the aunt of Charles, in the Ladies' Peace of Cambray. Francis abandoned his pretensions in Italy, and Charles his attempts on Burgundy, for the time.

After this the history of Charles and Francis becomes somewhat connected with that of Sol'yman, the Turkish sultan, whose achievements we must stop briefly to consider.

SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT ascended the Ottoman throne on the death of his father, Selim I. (1520). In the first year of his reign, provoked by the murder of his ambassador, he invaded Hungary and took the city of Belgrade. He next directed his victorious arms against the island of Rhodes, the seat of the Knights Hospitallers, bringing to bear on the fortifications of their capital the cannon which had breached the walls of Constantinople. Superhuman bravery availed not the garrison; overwhelming numbers compelled them to capitulate. The survivors were allowed to retire to Malta, and there erected a new fortress and hospital.

In 1526 Solyman again advanced into Hungary, took the capital Buda, and slew the Hungarian monarch. The crown was then conferred on Ferdinand, brother of Charles V., and the entire kingdom of Hungary ultimately became incorporated with Austria.

RENEWAL OF WAR.—The Turks subsequently renewed their incursions, and Francis now entered into an alliance with Solyman ; but the emperor, after granting toleration to the Protestant princes in order to secure their co-operation, took the field against the invaders and obliged them to retire. Hardly had he effected this when he was once more involved in war with the French king, who had deliberately broken his solemn engagements and sent an army into Italy.

Worn out by the long struggle, both kings at last desired peace, and a ten years' truce was concluded (1538). But Francis still coveted Milan. Four years later he broke the truce, while his ally, the sultan Solyman, invaded Hungary and sent a fleet to aid the French in reducing Italy. All Christendom was indignant at this unnatural alliance ; Henry VIII. joined Charles in the invasion of France, and the imperial troops were within two days' march of Paris, when Francis sued for peace, and a treaty was concluded (1544).

Death of the Kings.—Francis died three years afterward. Charles, having been compelled to grant the Protestants religious liberty in 1555, abdicated and retired to a monastery. He left Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip, while his brother Ferdinand was elected emperor of Germany.

Charles devoted the last years of his life to study, mechanical pursuits, and the cultivation of his garden, though he still kept himself informed in public affairs. Shortly before his death, he took a strange fancy to celebrate his own funeral. A tomb was erected in the chapel, he was placed in his coffin, and the service for the dead was chanted. This ceremony produced a deep impression on his mind, a violent fever seized him, and within a few days he expired (1558).

Solyman died in 1566, at the siege of a city in Hun-

gary. This siege is memorable for the heroic death of the Hungarian commandant, who, when the fortress was no longer tenable, rushed with six hundred followers into the ranks of the Janizaries, and fell pierced with bullets and arrows. The victors forced their way into the citadel, and demanded of a page where his master's treasures were concealed. "My master," replied the young Hungarian, "possessed one hundred thousand ducats and a thousand golden cups, that are all destroyed; but he leaves you treasures of powder which will instantly burst beneath your feet." At these words the magazines exploded, and five thousand Turks were buried in the ruins.

During the reign of Solyman, the Ottoman Empire reached the height of its power and glory.

Emperors of Germany.

Rudolph of Hapsburg, . . .	1273.	Robert, Count Palatine, . . .	1400.
Adolphus of Nassau, . . .	1292.	{ Sigismund of Hungary, . . .	1410.
Albert I. of Austria, . . .	1298.	{ Josse of Moravia, . . .	1410.
Henry VII. of Luxembourg, . . .	1308.	Albert II. of Austria, . . .	1438.
{ Louis V. of Bavaria, . . .	1314.	Frederick IV. of Austria, . . .	1440.
{ Frederick III. of Austria, . . .	1314.	Maximilian I., . . .	1493.
Charles IV. of Luxembourg, . . .	1346.	Charles V., . . .	1519.
Wenceslas of Bohemia, . . .	1378.	Ferdinand I., . . .	1556.



CHAPTER XXXVIII.

BRANCHES OF ORLEANS AND ANGOULEME IN FRANCE.—WARS OF THE LEAGUE.

(1498-1589.)

Louis XII., Duke of Or'leans, ascended the French throne in 1498, on the death of his cousin Charles VIII. (p. 253). Fifteen years of his reign were spent in at-

tempts to re-establish the authority of France in Italy ; but his armies were finally obliged to recross the Alps.

Louis XII. possessed many virtues, which gained for him the title of Father of his people. Upon his accession he forgave his enemies, saying, "The king of France revenges not the injuries of the Duke of Orleans." He abolished many oppressive taxes and retrenched his personal expenses, replying to the courtiers who ridiculed his economy that he would rather his subjects should laugh at his parsimony than weep at his exactions.

Francis I., Count of Angoulême (*on^g-goo-lehm'*), who had married the daughter of Louis XII., succeeded the latter in 1515. Louis said of him on his death-bed, "I have done everything for the best, but that big boy, d'Angoulême, will spoil all." Brave and ambitious, Francis at once turned his eyes toward Italy, where, as related in the last chapter, he met with alternate successes and defeats.

But wars could not be carried on without money, nor could money be obtained without taxation. Accordingly, we find that in this reign the people were oppressed by heavy burdens, the liberties which the French had enjoyed under the benevolent Louis were infringed, and the monarch's will at length became law. A general dissoluteness of morals prevailed, and virtue was laughed at as a relic of barbarous ages. Perhaps it was to atone for his vices that this chivalrous monarch engaged in a violent persecution of the Huguenots, in the course of which thousands perished.

Francis assumed the title of Protector of Letters. He founded the Imperial Library, yet with strange inconsistency forbade the printing of any books in France under pain of death.

Henry II., son of Francis, began his reign in 1547. His time was at first spent in shows and tournaments ; but, these losing their zest, he turned to the persecution

of the Huguenots. Even the coronation of his queen, Catharine de Medici, was celebrated by the burning of several reformers.

It was not long before Henry became engaged in war with Charles V. His general, the Duke of Guise (*gweez*), repulsed the emperor at the head of 100,000 men; but in 1557, the French met with a disastrous defeat at the hands of Philip II., son of Charles, in the battle of St. Quentin. The following year, however, the Duke of Guise took the city of Calais, which had been in possession of the English for more than two centuries.

Henry II. was mortally wounded at a tournament in 1559, a splinter from his adversary's lance having pierced his brain. The crown fell to his son Francis II.

Francis II., before the death of his father, had married Mary Stuart, the young queen of Scotland, daughter of James V., and niece of the Duke of Guise. His short reign of seventeen months was remarkable only for the persecution of the Huguenots, instigated by his mother and the powerful heads of the family of Guise, the guardians and controllers of the youthful sovereigns.

Inflamed with resentment against the Guises, who threatened to extirpate the reformed religion as well as to absorb all power in the state, the Huguenots, under eminent leaders—the Prince of Condé (*kon-da'*), the king of Navarre, and Admiral Coligny (*ko-leen-ye'*)—conspired to wrest from them the government. The plot was discovered, and little mercy was shown to the conspirators. Nothing but the sudden decease of the king saved Condé himself from an ignominious death.

Charles IX. succeeded his brother Francis in the eleventh year of his age. On account of his youth, his mother, Catharine de Medici, assumed control of the government. The power of the Guises was overthrown, Condé was liberated, and the king of Navarre was made lieutenant-gen-

eral of France. The Huguenots now obtained the privilege of meeting for worship, but not within the walls of cities and towns, or with arms upon their persons.

The Duke of Guise was enraged at this concession. An opportunity of showing his contempt for the law occurred in 1562 near Vassy, where with two hundred men he wantonly attacked some Protestants who were peaceably worshipping in a barn. Ninety were cut down, and none escaped without a wound. A fierce religious war at once broke out. The Huguenots rallied under Coligny and Condé, and wherever they were victorious churches were ravaged, monasteries burned, and their ornaments destroyed. The chiefs in vain interfered to save the monuments of art. In a church at Orleans, Condé seized an arquebuse to shoot one who was striking down a statue. "Wait," cried the man, "till I have cast down this idol; I shall then be ready to die."—Slaughter was the rule of both sides.

During these wars the king of Navarre was killed, the Duke of Guise was assassinated, and Condé was shot down in cold blood. In 1570 peace was made with the Huguenots, who obtained freedom of worship and were thus thrown off their guard. Charles offered the hand of his sister to Henry of Bourbon, the young king of Navarre, and all the principal reformers went to Paris to celebrate the wedding.

The festivities of the occasion were suddenly interrupted before dawn on the feast of St. Bartholomew, August 24, 1572, by the tolling of a bell, the appointed signal for the slaughter of all Huguenots within the walls. Henry, the young Duke of Guise, at once hastened to Coligny's residence with a band of assassins, who burst into the admiral's apartment, pierced his body with their swords, and flung the corpse from the window. Guise, who had waited in the street below, wiped the blood from

the lifeless face to assure himself that it was the right person, and then spurned the corpse with his foot.

Meanwhile armed Catholics, distinguished by a white cross on their hats, filled the streets and struck down persons of every age and condition that were suspected of being Huguenots. Cries of "*Kill all! kill all!*" echoed through the city, and the king himself was reported to have fired upon the fugitives from his palace window. Henry of Navarre and the young Prince of Condé saved their lives by consenting to attend mass.—Some Catholic writers, it is proper to add, allege that this massacre was provoked by the apprehension of a similar plot on the part of the Huguenot leaders.

The massacre of St. Bartholomew was not confined to the capital; it extended to the provinces, and more than fifty thousand Protestants are supposed to have perished. The whole of northern Europe denounced the crime, and the English court put on mourning for the dead.

Charles IX. died in 1574, the victim of a terrible remorse. After the fatal night of St. Bartholomew, he had been haunted by frightful dreams. "Sleeping or waking," he said to his physician, "the murdered Huguenots seem ever present before my eyes." A mysterious disease attacked him, a bloody sweat covered his body, and he expired, expressing the deepest regret for his cruelties.

Henry III., who succeeded his brother Charles, disgusted the French people with his follies. They saw him dressed in women's clothes, and heard him on the same day sing infamous ballads and sacred psalms. To enjoy these pleasures undisturbed and preserve a balance between opposing factions, he granted religious rights to the Huguenots, who were fast recovering from the deadly blow aimed at them in the preceding reign.

The Catholics soon took the alarm, and what was called "the Holy League" was organized "for the extirpation

of heresy," by the Duke of Guise and his adherents. The king, fearing the power of Guise, who also aspired to the crown, caused him to be assassinated; and, joining his forces with those of Henry of Navarre, he invested Paris, which was in the hands of the League.

During this siege Henry III. fell by the knife of a fanatic, instigated by the sister of the murdered duke. He breathed his last after naming the hero of Navarre as his successor.

Kings of France: Line of Valois.

Philip VI.,	1328.	Louis XII.,	1498.
John II., the Good,	1350.	Francis I.,	1515.
Charles V., the Wise, . . .	1364.	Henry II.,	1547.
Charles VI., the Maniac, . .	1380.	Francis II.,	1559.
Charles VII., the Victorious,	1422.	Charles IX.,	1560.
Louis XI.,	1461.	Henry III.,	1574.
Charles VIII., the Affable,	1483.	HOUSE OF BOURBON.	

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ENGLAND UNDER THE CHILDREN OF HENRY VIII. (1547-1603.)

Edward VI.—Henry VIII. of England left the crown by his will, first to his only son Edward, then to his daughter Mary, and lastly to Elizabeth. Edward was only nine years old at the time of his accession; and his uncle, afterward created Duke of Somerset, was appointed protector of the realm. Somerset, as well as Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, favored the reformed religion; in it, accordingly, the young king was carefully instructed.

In 1548, Cranmer, with a committee of divines, compiled a Book of Common Prayer in the English language;

and in the following year Parliament abolished all other forms of worship and established this in their stead. With some alterations in subsequent reigns, it has continued in use in the church of England to the present time.

The English reformers, however, would not concede the right of private judgment to others, but appointed a commission "to examine and search after all heretics and contemners of the Book of Common Prayer." Two persons convicted of holding heretical doctrines were committed to the flames.—Meanwhile the influence of Somerset declined. He was compelled to resign the protectorship, and in 1552 was brought to the scaffold on a charge of high-treason and felony.

The powerful Duke of Northumberland next directed the government. This ambitious noble, as the king's life was evidently drawing to a close, proposed to exclude the princesses Mary and Elizabeth from the succession, and give the crown to the grandniece of Henry VIII., Lady Jane Grey, who had married his son, Lord Guilford Dudley. Edward assented, and on his death in 1553 Jane Grey was proclaimed queen of England.

Mary.—When Lady Jane Grey was informed of her elevation to the throne, she fell in a swoon, and on her recovery refused to accept the crown. At last she yielded to the entreaties of her parents and husband, and the coronation took place. But the people feared the ambition of Northumberland, and regarded the princess Mary as the rightful heir. On her being proclaimed queen, numbers flocked to her standard. Lady Jane Grey, after a reign of only ten days, gladly resigned the crown, and Mary entered London in triumph amid general acclamations. Northumberland was shortly afterward condemned and executed.

Mary was zealously devoted to the ancient faith, and resolved to restore the Roman Catholic worship. The

statutes passed in the reign of Edward VI., establishing the Protestant church in England, were repealed. A treaty also was concluded, by which the queen was to marry Philip, the Catholic prince of Spain.

This alliance occasioned general dissatisfaction. A formidable insurrection followed, which the father of Lady Jane Grey joined in the hope of recovering the crown for his daughter. But the rebellion was crushed, and the principal conspirators were executed.

Lady Jane Grey, to whom her father's guilt was imputed, was doomed to the scaffold. When the fatal day arrived, her husband, who was also condemned, requested to see her. Jane, fearing that their fortitude would be overcome by the interview, refused him. "Our separation," said she, "will be but for a moment." From the window of her cell she saw him led to execution, and calmly viewed his bleeding corpse dragged back in a cart. Then, commending her soul to God, she cheerfully laid her head on the block.

Thus fell the unfortunate Jane Grey, one of the purest characters of history. She was devoted to literature, and, though only seventeen at the time of her death, was versed in eight languages, and astonished with her talents the learned men of her age.

In 1554 the marriage of Mary and Philip took place, and papal supremacy was re-established in England. The severe penalties against heretics were then revived, and many were committed to the flames. Latimer and Ridley, eminent Protestant divines, were burned in the same fire at Oxford. The aged Latimer encouraged his companion, saying, "Be of good cheer, my brother; we shall this day light such a candle in England as, I trust in God, will never be extinguished." Cranmer endeavored to save his life by recanting, but in vain; he suffered at the stake, disavowing his recantation.—It must be remembered that

at this time persecution was not the peculiar characteristic of any one government or church, but was in full accord with the general spirit of the age. On the continent its victims were numbered by thousands ; while in England, under the Protestant successor of Mary, it was no less violent than under Mary herself.

Queen Mary died in 1558, deserted by her husband and hated by her subjects. The loss of Calais (p. 286) weighed heavily upon her ; if her body were opened after death, she said, the word *Calais* would be found written on her heart. Apart from her cruelty, she was an estimable character ; her court was distinguished by the strictest morality.

Elizabeth, "the Good Queen Bess," succeeded her sister Mary in the twenty-sixth year of her age. At her coronation, she placed a wedding-ring on her finger, as a symbol of her marriage to the English realm, declaring that she would never have any other husband.

Elizabeth had been kept a close prisoner, and, although attached to the reformed doctrines and surrounded by spies, had contrived to save her life by her prudent conduct. On her accession the Protestant faith was restored, and the queen's ecclesiastical supremacy recognized.

Elizabeth's right to the crown was disputed by her cousin Mary, queen of Scots and wife of the Dauphin. The Catholics upheld Mary, for they looked on Henry's divorce from his first wife as unlawful, and his marriage with the queen's mother, Anne Boleyn, as void.

By adopting the royal title and arms of England, Francis and Mary provoked the resentment of Elizabeth, who gladly availed herself of the disturbances then prevailing in Scotland to revenge the insult. Here the Reformation had made rapid strides through the eloquence of John Knox ; and the Protestants, now in arms against the Catholic regent, were aided by Elizabeth with a fleet

and army. Their success was thus insured, and Presbyterianism was established in Scotland. At this juncture, Francis having died (1560), the widowed Mary returned to her native land.

The Scots received their youthful sovereign, then in her nineteenth year, beautiful, amiable, and accomplished, with demonstrations of delight. Still she was a Catholic, and as such soon awakened hostility on the part of her subjects. When she ordered mass to be celebrated in her chapel, the people cried for the death of "the idolater priest." Her gay amusements, moreover, offended the strict notions of the reformers.

In 1565 the queen of Scots married her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, a man of violent passions and dissolute habits, who soon lost the affection of his wife. Domestic quarrels followed; till at last, entering the queen's private apartments, he dispatched in her presence her secretary Rizzio (*rit'se-o*), who had become the special object of his jealousy and hatred. In the following year Darnley was blown up in his residence with gunpowder; and as Mary shortly after gave her hand to the Earl of Bothwell, his reputed murderer, she was suspected of being concerned in the crime. Her disaffected subjects now took up arms, and imprisoned their queen in Lochlev'en Castle. Mary, however, subsequently escaped, and after an unsuccessful battle sought an asylum in England, under the strong arm of her royal cousin.

Elizabeth, meanwhile, had reigned with vigor and discretion. She had been sought in marriage by various foreign princes, but had rejected them all. The prudent statesman Cecil (*ses'il*), Lord Burleigh, was her prime minister, and continued to direct the affairs of government until his death in 1598.

After her arrival in England, Mary Stuart was kept in confinement. Several plots for her release were discovered,

the boldest of which in 1586 was a conspiracy to assassinate Elizabeth and proclaim the Scottish queen in her stead. This determined Elizabeth to bring her prisoner to the block, and Mary, queen of Scots, was beheaded in 1587.

In the following year Philip II. of Spain, burning with hate against the English on various accounts, sent out an "Invincible Armada" (boastfully so called), for their subjugation. It consisted of one hundred and thirty-five vessels, carrying eight thousand seamen and nineteen thousand soldiers. Elizabeth prepared an army to meet the enemy, in case of their landing. She rode through the lines, exhorting the soldiers to be mindful of their duty, and promised to lead them herself into the field. "I know," she said, "that I have but the feeble arm of a woman; still I have the heart of a king."

But she was not called on to display her leadership. The Armada was attacked by the famous naval heroes Howard and Drake; many of the unwieldy Spanish galleons were destroyed; and the rest, attempting to escape by rounding Scotland, were for the most part driven ashore or badly damaged by a storm. This victory secured to England the dominion of the sea.

During the remaining fourteen years of Elizabeth's reign, the Catholics were incessantly persecuted. More than a hundred were put to death; others were publicly whipped and thrown into jails. Severe penalties were also enacted against the Puritans, who demanded further changes and a purer worship.

Elizabeth also attempted to establish Protestantism in Ireland, against the will of the inhabitants. A rebellion broke out, and her favorite the Earl of Essex was sent to suppress it. Essex, however, suddenly returned to England without the queen's order, and for disloyal conduct afterward was condemned to death.

Elizabeth had given Essex a ring, telling him if he was ever in danger from her anger to send it to her and it would save him. This he did; but the Countess of Nottingham, to whom he intrusted it, withheld it from the queen. Elizabeth anxiously looked for the ring; but finally, supposing that the pride of Essex kept him from sending it, signed the warrant for his execution. Two years afterward, on her death-bed, the countess revealed her treachery to the queen. Elizabeth burst into a violent passion and shook the dying woman, exclaiming, "God may forgive you, but I never can!" From this moment she abandoned herself to melancholy, rejected food, and passed her time in sighs and tears. Her death took place in 1603.

Elizabeth was one of England's greatest sovereigns, though, as a woman, she was vain, capricious, jealous, petulant, and insincere. She delighted in the flattery of her courtiers, and would coquettishly play with her rings that they might admire the beauty of her hands. Her lords she did not hesitate to reprove with her harsh, masculine voice, and once she boxed the ear of Essex for some affront that he had offered her. Even the grave deliberations of her council she occasionally interrupted, to swear at her ministers in a furious burst of rage.

Beneath all this were an iron will, indomitable courage, and wonderful political tact. The best statesmen of the age were outwitted by the queen, who stopped not even at the grossest falsehood to accomplish her purposes. And she did accomplish them, raising England to the proudest rank among the nations.

Despite her faults, Elizabeth gained that which she most desired—her subjects' hearty love. Her very worst acts did not seem to impair her popularity. It is related that a Puritan whose hand she cut off waved the stump over his head, and cried "God save the queen!"

VOYAGES.—During Elizabeth's reign a number of distinguished navigators and explorers flourished. Francis Drake sailed round the globe, returning to England loaded



QUEEN ELIZABETH KNIGHTING DRAKE.

with plunder from the Spanish seas. The queen went down to his ship and knighted him on board; the vessel she ordered to be preserved forever in commemoration of his achievement.

Sir Walter Raleigh (*raw'le*) sent an expedition to the Western Continent, which brought back such an account of the charming region that Elizabeth named it, in honor of herself, *Virginia*. In 1585 a settlement was made; but the colonists subsequently returned to England, bringing with them tobacco and the potato, the use of which they had learned from the Indians.

Frob'isher, sailing in search of a north-west passage, explored the coast of Greenland; while Sir John Hawkins, seeking profit rather than renown, procured negro slaves on the African coast in exchange for articles of trifling value, and disposed of them in the Spanish-American colonies.

FASHIONS.—Watches were first brought to England in Elizabeth's time. Coaches were also introduced; before this, the queen used to ride behind her chamberlain. In 1598, the first regular theatre, the Globe, in which Shakespeare performed, was built in London. Extravagance in dress was an evil of the age. Immense ruffs of stiffened cambric were worn round the neck; and to such an extreme was the fashion carried that the queen appointed persons to stand at the gates of London and cut down those that were more than a yard wide. The gentlemen, with their velvet suits and jewelled points, often sported "a manor on their backs." Elizabeth herself appeared almost every day in a different costume; at the time of her death her wardrobe contained three thousand outfits.

Literature.—The Elizabethan age was illustrious for the revival of English literature. Classical learning became popular, and versions were made of the standard poets and historians of antiquity. The queen herself, under the training of that faithful "scholè-master" Roger Ascham (*as'kam*), was a good Greek and Latin scholar, and both translated and composed. English prose made great advances; and poetry, which had been silent since the days of Chaucer, again found voice.

The genius of Spenser threw into his "Faerie Queene" the very soul of harmony. Sir Philip Sidney, "the darling of the court and camp," poured out in his pastoral romance of "Arcadia" his tenderness and chivalry; while in his "Defence of Poesie" he has left a model of a stately, clear, well-rounded style. Beaumont and Fletcher, who jointly composed their plays and lyrics; Lord Francis Bacon, the father of Inductive Philosophy; and Shakespeare, the greatest of dramatists,—flourished in the reigns of the Virgin Queen and her successor.

English Sovereigns: House of Tudor.

HENRY VII.,	1485.	Gunpowder manufactured; body-guards appointed.
HENRY VIII.,	1509.	Looking-glasses and carpets first used.
EDWARD VI.,	1547.	Needles made; legal rate of interest, 10%.
MARY,	1553.	Chimneys rare; copper money; table-knives used.
ELIZABETH,	1558.	Hardware, woollens, and stockings, manufactured.



CHAPTER XL.

RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

The Netherlands, or Low Countries, formerly comprised the present kingdoms of Holland and Belgium. In early ages they consisted in part of a vast swamp, through which the Rhine and other rivers flowed to the sea. The half-submerged islands were the home of a hardy race that lived on mounds raised above the reach of the tide. Many of these wretched abodes were swept away by a flood about a century before the Christian era; and a band of German exiles afterward took possession of the main island, calling it *Bet-aww*, or good meadow, whence their name *Batavians* (see Map, p. 124).

All the early inhabitants of the Netherlands yielded to Cæsar. The Batavians, bravest of the German tribes, became his allies, and during four centuries their cavalry formed the most efficient part of the Roman legions. After this the Batavian people were merged in the Frisians, a kindred race, who occupied the northern portion of the Netherlands. For several centuries the Frisians resisted the encroachments of the Franks, until they were finally reduced to submission by Charles Martel, and converted to Christianity.

In the centuries following the era of Charlemagne, the Netherlands were divided into a number of small domains, governed by dukes and counts. Among these were Holland (*hollow land*), Friesland,



virtually a republic, and Flanders. Flanders fell to the powerful House of Burgundy in 1383; and Philip the Good, a prince of that family, in the next century extended his authority over the whole of the Netherlands.

The provinces were now in a most flourishing condition as regards agriculture, commerce, and manufactures.

Philip encouraged literature and art. Eminent authors flourished at his court, and oil-painting was revived by the Van Eyck (*ike*) brothers.

Charles the Bold, son of Philip, was the last of the dukes of Burgundy. After having been twice defeated by the Swiss, he was killed in a third battle with them (1477). His rich possessions (see Map, p. 299) descended to his daughter Mary, afterward married to Maximilian of Austria. Her grandson, Charles V., emperor of Germany, inherited the Netherlands, and on his abdication gave them to his son, Philip II. of Spain (1555).

The Low Countries, in the middle of the sixteenth century, had reached the height of their prosperity. They contained about three hundred and fifty cities with six thousand towns and villages, protected from the ocean by dikes, and were so densely peopled that scarcely any land remained uncultivated. Here Philip spent the first fourteen years of his reign. During this period the people were oppressed by the lawless soldiers of Spain; and, as many of them were Protestants, while Philip was strongly attached to the Roman Catholic faith, they dreaded the introduction of the Inquisition into their free land. Philip declared that he would rather be no king at all than reign over heretics, and signalized his return to Spain in 1559 by the execution of thirteen Spanish Protestants.

The government of the Netherlands was then intrusted to the Duchess of Parma, Philip's half sister. She was assisted by a council, three members of which were devoted to the Spanish interests. The others were patriot leaders,—Count Egmont, a descendant of the old Frisian kings, Count Horn, and William the Silent, Prince of Orange, the immortal founder of Dutch liberties.

The Protestants were now fiercely persecuted. Reading the Bible and praying in one's own house were crimes punishable with death. But the people of the Nether-

lands indignantly denounced the tyranny of the government; and in spite of tortures and executions the new faith gained ground. On one occasion, a fearless reformer even preached in a room which overlooked the market-place where some of his brethren were then burning.

The popular leaders vainly protested against these cruelties, and at last a league was organized among the nobility for the purpose of resistance. The confederates assembled at Brussels, to lay their complaints before the regent. The duchess becoming agitated during the audience, a member of her suite exclaimed in a passion, “Is it possible, madam, that you are afraid of these *beggars*?” This was reported to the nobles at a banquet, when one of them, hanging a beggar’s wallet round his neck, and filling a wooden bowl with wine, proposed the toast, “Long live the Beggars.” The whole company clamorously responded, and the name was at once adopted.

In 1566 the long-oppressed people gathered in tumultuous crowds to listen to the Protestant preachers. They were joined by numerous outlaws; and a fanatic mob, armed with hammers and pitchforks, swept through the Netherlands, ravaging the churches and destroying the images, amid cries of “Long live the Beggars!”

When Philip heard of this, he tore his beard in rage, and declared that it should cost them dear. The following year he sent an army to the Netherlands, commanded by the Duke of Alva, a crafty, unscrupulous tyrant. “I have tamed men of iron in my day,” said Alva, “and shall I not easily crush these men of butter?” Thousands fled from the country, among them the Prince of Orange; but Horn and Egmont were seized and executed. The regent resigned, and Alva was made governor-general. Blood now flowed like water. On his return to Spain six years afterward, Alva boasted that eighteen thousand persons had been put to death during his administration.

Meanwhile the Prince of Orange, supported by his brother, was actively engaged in the field. Town after town declared for him. Fleets were equipped along the coast, manned by brave "Sea Beggars," who captured the Spanish vessels and seized important maritime towns. The struggle for independence had commenced.

In 1574 the Spanish laid siege to Leyden (*li'den*), which was bravely defended for five months. The citizens resolved to die of starvation rather than admit the Spaniards. "So long as you hear a cat mew or a dog bark," they called to the beleaguering forces, "you may know that we hold out." But at last hunger got the better of their patriotism, and the famished crowds begged the burgomaster to give them food or surrender. "I have no food to give you," said he, "and I have sworn not to surrender; but take my sword, plunge it into my breast, and divide my flesh among you!" These words inspired them with fresh courage to await the succor which they knew to be at hand; and at last it came. Through the dikes which had been broken down the sea poured, overwhelming the terror-stricken Spaniards, and bearing a friendly fleet, laden with provisions, to the very walls of Leyden.

Founding of the Dutch Republic.—In 1576 the Prince of Orange succeeded in uniting all the provinces by a treaty called the Pacification of Ghent. But the fortunes of war were now decidedly against them; disaffection arose; and William, anxious to secure the independence of at least a portion of the Netherlands, joined the northern provinces in a closer alliance by the Union of Utrecht. This was the foundation of the Dutch Republic. William of Orange was chosen *Stadtholder* of Holland and Zealand.

Philip had offered a large reward and a patent of nobility to any one who would assassinate the Prince of Orange. After several previous attempts, the foul deed was accomplished in 1584. William the Silent fell, pierced by three

bullets. His dying words were, "God have mercy on me and on this poor people!"

Prince Maurice succeeded his father as stadtholder, and for many years continued the war against Spain. The



FALL OF SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.

Dutch sought and obtained aid from Queen Elizabeth ; six thousand English troops were sent into the Netherlands. In one of the battles in which they were engaged, the gallant Sir Philip Sidney, "the Flower of Chivalrie," received a mortal wound. In his agony he begged for a cup of water, but as he was raising it to his lips he noticed the imploring glance of a wounded soldier. "Give it to him," said the hero, "his necessity is greater than mine."

The seven United Provinces of the north made good their resistance to the Spanish government ; and in the beginning of the seventeenth century a truce was concluded securing their independence and religious freedom. The ten southern, or Belgian, provinces remained in the possession of Spain.

The Sixteenth Century.

The Reformation. Religious wars in Germany, France, and the Netherlands. Turkish wars. Exploration and colonization of India and South America by Europeans. Discoveries of gold and silver in the New World. Establishment of a great Mogul Empire in India. Power of the kings increasing, that of the nobles diminishing. Gregorian Calendar established in 1582, by Pope Gregory XIII.; ten days (October 5-14 inclusive) suppressed, and of the exact hundred years thereafter such only made leap-years as should be divisible by 400.



CHAPTER XLI.

ACCESSION OF THE BOURBONS IN FRANCE.—

HENRY IV. AND LOUIS XIII.

(1589-1643.)

Henry IV.—The reign of Henry IV., the Great, the first of the Bourbon kings, forms one of the most important epochs in French history. It will be remembered

that he was besieging Paris with Henry III. of France, when the latter fell by the dagger of a fanatic monk (1589). The news of the king's murder was received within the walls with unbounded joy ; the sister of the Duke of Guise kissed the lips of the messenger who brought the intelligence.

Henry of Navarre, the new king, was a Protestant, and on this account was at once deserted by half of the royal army. He was therefore obliged to raise the siege of Paris ; but, having received money and men from Queen Elizabeth, he met the Duke of Mayenne', brother of the murdered Guise and head of the Catholic League, on the plains of Iv'ry (1590). Mayenne's army, consisting in part of Spanish troops, was superior in numbers ; but Henry, bidding his men follow the white plume on his casque, led the attack in person with characteristic bravery, and gained a brilliant victory.

After the battle of Ivry, Henry again invested the capital ; but compassion for his people prevented him from reducing it by famine. He allowed provisions to be carried in and many of the starving inhabitants to depart. The city was thus enabled to hold out till the approach of a Spanish army compelled the king to retire.

Not till 1593, when by the advice of his leading supporters Henry publicly abjured the reformed faith, was the civil strife terminated. Crowned king of France in the following year, he was then in a position to protect the Protestants ; and in 1598 he issued the famous Edict of Nantes, granting them liberty of worship and various privileges. Hostilities with Spain continued till this year.

Henry, with the aid of his wise minister the Duke of Sully, now sought to repair the damages occasioned by thirty years of war. The expenses of the government were diminished, trade and agriculture were revived, schools and libraries opened. The culture of silk was ex-

tended, and manufactories of linen and tapestry were established. The king's aim was to make France happy and prosperous. "I will so manage affairs," he once said, "that the poorest peasant may eat meat every day, and have a fowl in his pot on Sundays." His memory is to this day cherished by the French people more affectionately than that of any other of their sovereigns.

As his realm advanced in wealth and power, Henry IV. matured a *Grand Political Design*, to unite all the European states in one vast Christian republic, drive the Turks beyond the Bosphorus, and refer international disputes to a Congress of Nations instead of deciding them by war. Thus the overweening influence of the House of Austria would be destroyed, and the balance of power maintained in Europe.

But Henry did not live to accomplish his purpose. In 1610, Ravillac (*rah-vahl-yahk'*), a religious bigot, thrust his arm into the royal carriage and stabbed the king to the heart.

Louis XIII., son of Henry IV. by Mary de Medici, was only nine years old when his father was murdered, and for a time the government was conducted by his mother as regent. But she was controlled by Italian favorites, squandered the treasures which Henry's economy had amassed, and by her misrule excited general dissatisfaction. Nor was the States-general, called together in the hope that it could remedy existing evils, able to accomplish anything. Finally in 1617 the king assumed the government himself, and imprisoned the queen-mother.

Three years later the Huguenots, whose rights had been invaded, rose in arms, and after a gallant struggle obtained a confirmation of the Edict of Nantes. Louis now became reconciled to his mother, and her favored adviser, Cardinal Richelieu (*reesh'e-loo*), was admitted to the cabinet.

This great statesman, as prime minister of Louis XIII., for eighteen years shaped the history of France, if not of all Europe. To trample Austria in the dust was the one great object of which he never lost sight.

As the stipulations made with the Huguenots were now totally disregarded, they soon commenced warlike preparations for their own protection. Richelieu, who longed to destroy this pestilent sect root and branch, collected a large army, took the field in person, and promptly laid siege to their chief city Rochelle (*ro-shel'*), on the Bay of Biscay (see Map, p. 202). To intercept foreign succor, a great dike was built; an English fleet, sent to aid the besieged, was thus prevented from reaching the city; and after fourteen months of suffering, during a portion of which they lived on boiled leather and weeds washed up by the tide, the starving inhabitants surrendered. On entering Rochelle in 1628, the victors found the garrison that had so stubbornly resisted them reduced to one hundred and fifty-four men. Other Huguenot towns submitted, their fortifications were demolished, and the independence of the French Protestants was lost. But they were still allowed freedom of worship; the Edict of Nantes was again confirmed. Thus ended the civil and religious wars in France, during which a million of lives were destroyed, and nine cities with four hundred villages were reduced to ruins.

The power of the French aristocracy was broken by Richelieu. Numerous conspiracies were crushed, and the most formidable of the nobles were condemned to exile, imprisonment, or the scaffold. The man or woman who offended Richelieu was in danger; no Frenchman's life or property was safe. The tyrant cardinal governed the king and insulted the queen. Utterly unscrupulous in his choice of means, he was once justly rebuked by a French officer whom he required to join certain conspirators in order to

betray them. "I am ready to give my life for my sovereign," said the soldier, "but honor—never!"

The policy of Richelieu was to centralize all power in the monarch, and he brought the most gallant nation in Europe under the feet of Louis XIII. How he humbled Austria, will be shown in the following chapter. In the midst of his political duties, he found time for the cultivation of literature; and in 1635 he founded the French Academy.

1600 A. D.—Queen Elizabeth near the close of her reign. Henry IV. king of France. Spain (with Portugal, Naples, and Sicily) under Philip III. Netherlands under the Archduke of Austria. Seven United Provinces under Maurice of Orange. The weak Rudolph II. emperor of Germany, and king of Bohemia and Hungary. Christian IV. king of Denmark. Venice and Genoa republics. Abbas the Great shah of Persia. Mogul dominion in India at the height of its power.



CHAPTER XLII.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

(1618–1648.)

Germany.—While France and the Netherlands were suffering from religious wars, the Protestants of Germany under Ferdinand I. and his son Maximilian II. enjoyed toleration. Rudolph II., son of Maximilian, was a zealous Catholic, and during his reign the rights of the Austrian reformers were infringed. A confederacy for mutual protection, called the Evangelical Union, was consequently formed by the Protestant princes of the empire. It was opposed by a Catholic League, which secured the aid of Spain.

Matthias, brother of Rudolph, procured the crowns of

Hungary and Bohemia for his kinsman Ferdinand, a bitter foe to the Reformation. The closing of two Protestant churches in Bohemia soon after provoked a general insurrection; and thus began in 1618 a furious civil war, which raged in Germany for thirty years.

On the death of Matthias in 1619, the imperial dignity was conferred upon Ferdinand (II.); but the Bohemians refused obedience to the newly-chosen emperor, and called to their throne Frederick V., elector of the Palatinate* and head of the Evangelical Union. This prince, however, was totally defeated by the imperialists, and deprived of both Bohemia and his hereditary possessions.

Scarcely were Bohemia and the Palatinate subdued, when Ferdinand became involved in war with other German states assisted by Christian IV., king of Denmark. In this emergency, Wallenstein (*wol'len-stine*), a Bohemian nobleman, offered his services to the emperor, promising to raise an army of fifty thousand men and maintain them by pillaging hostile provinces.

This mysterious man is said never to have smiled, and even to have spoken only when compelled by necessity. He possessed enormous wealth, and lived in a style of more than royal magnificence. The very horses in his stable had mangers of polished steel, and behind each hung its picture painted by some distinguished artist. To gain the favor of Wallenstein was considered the high-road to fortune. On his taking the field in behalf of Ferdinand, thousands of adventurers were attracted to his standard. Supported by the imperial general Tilly, he swept through the land and humbled the Protestant allies. Only at Stralsund (*strahl'söönt*), a strongly fortified city

* The Palatinate was a division of Germany under a ruler styled the *Elector Palatine*. The name was derived from the appellation of a high judicial officer under the Merovingian kings of France, known as *Comes Palatii*, master of the royal household or palace.

on the Baltic coast, did he meet with any material check ; from this place, after having sworn to take it "even were it bound to Heaven with chains of adamant," he was obliged to retire with the loss of 12,000 men. The result of the war was on the whole so adverse to Christian IV. that in 1629 he was forced to sue for peace and withdraw to his own dominions.

Ferdinand took advantage of his success to suppress the Protestant worship in the conquered countries ; while the Catholic princes, incensed at the ravages of the imperial army and moved by jealousy, procured Wallenstein's dismissal. The latter retired to his estates, but was soon recalled by the emperor to oppose a new champion of the Protestants, Gustavus (*gus-tah'vus*) Adolphus of Sweden.

The Scandinavian Kingdoms.—Glancing back at the history of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, we find that they had been united under the sceptre of Margaret of Denmark, "the Semiramis of the North," by the Union of Calmar, in 1397. The era of Margaret was succeeded by a period of war and confusion. The Swedes revolted several times, but were finally subdued in 1520 by Christian II., the Tyrant. So great was the cruelty of Christian that an insurrection again broke out under Gustavus Vasa (*vah'sä*), a Swedish noble who had escaped from the prisons of Denmark. Concealing himself for a time among the mountains, where he labored with the miners, he one day made himself known to them, and persuaded them to rise in defence of their country's liberties. Gustavus was everywhere victorious, and in 1523 he was elected king of Sweden.

A similar revolution took place in Denmark. The infamous Christian was deposed, and his uncle Frederick I. became king of Denmark and Norway. Gustavus and the contemporary Danish monarchs established the Lutheran faith in the Scandinavian countries.

The Lion of the North.—Gustavus Adolphus, grandson of Gustavus Vasa, was induced to take part in the German war by his zeal for the Protestant cause and a desire to extend the power of Sweden. He was urged to the contest by Cardinal Richelieu, who could not tolerate the increasing influence of the House of Austria, and paid



Gustavus an annual subsidy to maintain an army against the emperor. Before leaving Sweden, Gustavus bade farewell to the States—perhaps, as he said, forever—and amid the tears of all commended to their loyal protection his little daughter Christina as the heiress of his crown.

In 1630 Gustavus disembarked on the Baltic coast

with not quite twenty thousand Swedes. The imperialists looked with disdain on this new foe, and boasted that the "King of Snow," as they scornfully called him, would soon melt as he moved to the south. But the result did not verify their prediction. His well-trained soldiers, in striking contrast to the rude troops of Tilly, assembled regularly for religious worship and never molested private property. Duelling Gustavus put down by repairing one day with an executioner to the spot where he learned an encounter was to take place. "Now, gentlemen," said he to the officers, "fight till one is killed;" and then addressing the executioner, "Off with the head of the survivor."

Though successful in a series of rapid movements culminating in a grand victory near Leipsic (*līpe'sik*), Gustavus could not prevent the capture and sack of Magdeburg (see Map, p. 416), which was given up by Tilly to his brutal soldiers. For four days they inflicted on the ill-fated inhabitants the most revolting barbarities that cruelty could devise, leaving of this once flourishing city only the cathedral and a few houses and fishermen's huts.

The year after his defeat at Leipsic, Tilly was killed in a battle with the Swedes, and the Snow-King was now master of the whole country from the Baltic to the Danube. In this extremity, the emperor Ferdinand restored Wallenstein to the command of his forces. The hostile armies encountered each other at Lutzen (*löö't'zen*), where the Swedes gained the victory but lost their king. Gustavus fell from his horse, mortally wounded. On being asked his name by an imperialist, he replied, "I am the king of Sweden, and seal with my blood the Protestant religion and liberties of Germany!" A sword-thrust followed this avowal, and the Lion of the North, "the first commander of his century," expired (1632).

After the death of their king, the Swedes continued

the war in Germany with varied success. In 1634 Wallenstein was assassinated by order of the jealous Ferdinand ; but it was not until the Peace of Westphalia, in 1648, that the conflict was terminated. By this memorable treaty, the liberties of the German Protestants were confirmed ; Sweden obtained five million crowns and an extensive tract on the Baltic ; the eastern limits of France were extended ; Switzerland and Holland were recognized as independent states.

Germany was materially affected by these thirty years of bloodshed and devastation. Her industry and commerce were paralyzed ; her art and literature declined ; her wealth was transferred to England and Holland. Whole districts were depopulated. A decrepit old woman would be the sole inhabitant of a ruined hamlet. Even the beasts of the field and the birds of the air perished for want of sustenance. In some places guards had to be posted to protect the newly-buried dead from the starving people. Cultivated lands were grown over, and the remains of once thriving villages are still found in forests that have since sprung up. To this day Germany has not recovered from the disastrous consequences of the Thirty Years' War.

The Scandinavian Kingdoms.

The Union of Calmar (in force from 1397 to 1524) united Sweden with Denmark and Norway ; the monarchy elective, each of the three kingdoms having its own parliament and laws. Christian I. acquired Sles'wick and Holstein (*hol'stine*) by inheritance, 1460. University of Up'sal, Sweden, founded, 1476 ; of Copenhagen, 1479. Printing introduced at Stockholm, 1483 ; into Iceland, 1528. Bible translated into Danish, 1545. Castle of Kronenburg built on the Sound, 1577, and tolls levied on vessels entering the Baltic. Tycho Brahe (*te'ko brah'ch*), a great astronomer, conducts the most splendid observatory in Europe, 1577–1594. Reign of Christian IV. in Denmark, 1588–1648, long and prosperous ; cities built, voyages of discovery fitted out, etc.

CHAPTER XLIII.

*ACCESSION OF THE STUARTS IN ENGLAND.—**JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.—(1603–1649.)*

James I.—James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary Stuart and Lord Darnley, next heir to Elizabeth, was proclaimed king of England on the death of that queen in 1603. With her dying breath Elizabeth declared that she wished no rascal's son to succeed her but a king's, and when asked whom she meant replied, "Our cousin of Scotland." By the accession of James, England and Scotland were united under one sovereign, but they continued to be governed by separate parliaments.

The early part of the reign of James I. was disturbed by a conspiracy to elevate his cousin, Lady Arabella Stuart, to the throne. The plot was detected, and Sir Walter Raleigh, accused of complicity in it, was committed to the Tower. During the thirteen years of his confinement he wrote his "History of the World," which attracted general admiration. The Prince of Wales said that no man but his father would keep such a bird in a cage. James finally allowed Raleigh to undertake an expedition to Guiana in search of gold. This proved unsuccessful, and, on returning to England, the distinguished soldier, scholar, and statesman, was brought to the block. Feeling the edge of the axe, he smiled, and said it was a sharp medicine but a cure for all diseases.

The year 1605 is memorable for the Gunpowder Plot, a scheme devised by some zealous Catholics, in consequence of the persecution of their church, to blow up the king and Parliament. Before the commencement of the session, the suspicions of James were aroused by an anonymous letter, in which it was stated that the Parlia-

ment would receive a terrible blow, but that those who suffered would not see who hurt them.

Search being made, Guy Fawkes, one of the principal conspirators, was found in the vault under the House of Lords, with matches ready to light the powder. On being asked his motive, he replied, "To blow the Scotch beggars back to their native mountains." Fawkes and several of his accomplices were executed.

One of the most successful measures of James I. was his attempt to civilize the rude inhabitants of Ireland, which island had been finally reduced to submission during the previous reign. Scotch and English colonies were planted in the north, and the Irish were instructed in husbandry and the industrial arts.

James I. was awkward and slovenly in his habits, of inferior ability, full of high notions of the divine right of kings, attached to unworthy favorites, and so cowardly that he could not endure the sight of a sword, and wore his clothes heavily padded from fear of being stabbed. His subjects contemptuously alluded to him as *Queen James*, while they styled his predecessor *King Elizabeth*. His flatterers complimented his learning by calling him the British Solomon ; but Sully happily characterized him as "the wisest fool in Europe." Theology was his favorite study ; to him we are indebted for our present version of the Bible. His age was one of general political corruption. Even the great philosopher Bacon sullied his ermine as lord high chancellor by accepting bribes, and was dismissed from his office in disgrace.

Among the ornaments of James's reign must be mentioned his poet-laureate, "rare Ben Jonson," who from the humble position of a bricklayer rose to distinction as a dramatist ; Lord Na'pi-er, the inventor of logarithms ; and Harvey, who made the important discovery of the circulation of the blood.

Under James, the first permanent settlements were made in America. In 1607, *Jamestown* was founded in Virginia; and thirteen years later, the Pilgrim Fathers landed on Plymouth rock and commenced the first New England town. Meanwhile the Dutch had established the colony of New Amsterdam on Manhattan Island.

Charles I., though he inherited his father's despotic theories of government, was a man of strict morality, and at his accession enjoyed the favor of the people. James had left the treasury empty; and, as England had become involved in war with Spain and Austria, Charles asked Parliament to vote the supplies necessary for carrying it on. This was the opportunity of the Commons; they refused to comply with the demand until certain grievances were redressed. Charles thereupon angrily closed the session (1626), and to procure the money needed levied taxes* and exacted a loan on his own authority. Such unconstitutional proceedings awakened a spirit of opposition among the people; and in the midst of growing dissatisfaction, the king, through the persuasions of the Duke of Buckingham, espousing the Huguenot cause, rashly engaged in a war with France. A first expedition to Rochelle having failed, Buckingham, who had long been odious to the nation, was preparing a second, when he fell by the knife of an assassin.

Similar difficulties recurring with Parliament, the king again twice dissolved that body, and, to raise the means required for the support of government, persisted in resorting to illegal taxes, fines, and oppressive monopolies. To check the rising spirit of liberty, unheard-of severities

* Among these were *tonnage* and *poundage*, or duties on exports and imports; and *ship-money*, an imposition on the several ports, cities, counties, etc., for furnishing and providing certain ships for the king's service. By the exaction of ship-money alone, the king obtained a yearly supply of £218,500.

were practised in the Star-Chamber* and High Commission Courts. Prynne, a Puritan writer, was condemned to lose



PURITANS FLEEING THE KINGDOM.

his ears and pay £5,000 for inveighing against cards, dancing, and theatrical plays. Others were branded or imprisoned for life.

The public discontent caused by these despotic proceedings was heightened by the course of Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, under whose influence Charles en-

* The Star-Chamber was an ancient English tribunal, said to have been so called from the gilded stars on the ceiling of the council-chamber of Westminster Palace, in which its sessions were held. Under the Stuarts, the slightest contempt of the royal authority was punished by this court with forfeiture of property, whipping, maiming, or imprisonment.

deavored to make innovations in religion, and suppress the Puritans. This sect, professing to follow the *pure* word of God in opposition to the traditions of men, desired a wider separation from the doctrines and usages of Rome than was found in the established church of England. The persecutions to which they were now subjected, led many to seek civil and religious liberty in America ; but such an escape was soon denied them, and their embarkation, when anticipated, was forcibly prevented.

After driving the English people to the verge of rebellion, Charles endeavored to introduce the Anglican form of worship into Scotland, and thus became involved in fresh difficulties. When the reading of the liturgy was attempted in Edinburgh, the service was interrupted with groans and hisses. Stools were hurled at the head of the officiating minister, and the bishop, when escaping to his lodgings, was set upon by a crowd of incensed women, who rolled him in the mire. The whole nation was stirred, and a Covenant was entered into by men of all classes, to withstand to the death encroachments on their religious freedom. Charles tried to crush this opposition by force of arms ; but the victorious Covenanters marched into England, and forced him to negotiations.

In 1640 the king found himself obliged to convoke what finally came to be called "the Long Parliament." This body, however, attended rather to righting the national wrongs than to providing for the royal necessities. The Earl of Strafford, the king's chief counsellor, and Archbishop Laud, were impeached for high-treason; Strafford was executed, and ultimately the archbishop also. New causes of irritation arose ; no concessions would be made on either side ; and at last Charles, driven to desperation, declared war against Parliament (1642).

The partisans of royalty adopted the name of *Cavaliers*; the adherents of Parliament, eschewing the long ringlets

of their adversaries as a sign of dissolute habits, cropped their hair so close to the head that they were nicknamed *Roundheads*. The civil war lasted four years, and was generally disastrous to the royal cause. The hopes of Charles were finally overthrown in the battle of Naseby (1645), and he escaped to Scotland, only to be handed over to the English Parliament.

Meanwhile among the victors had arisen a radical party, distinguished as *Independents*, who advocated the absolute freedom of each congregation from all ecclesiastical control, and aimed not only at the removal of the king, but also at the entire subversion of monarchical government. This extreme party prevailed in the army; Oliver Cromwell was its leading spirit.

Cromwell, one of the extraordinary characters of history, was a country gentleman's son, born in Huntingdon in 1599. An interesting anecdote is told of his childhood—that at the age of five years, when the royal family was visiting at his uncle's house, he had a fight with the young prince (afterward Charles I.), and beat him without mercy. After Cromwell grew up, his mind took a religious turn, and he became a strict Puritan. It is stated that, to escape persecution, he took passage for America, but that the ship on which he had embarked was prohibited from sailing; certain it is that he remained in England, "the evil genius of the House of Stuart."

At the end of the civil war, Cromwell, supported by a powerful party of Independents, obtained possession of the king's person. After clearing the House of Commons of all members who were not in his interest, he brought Charles to trial on a charge of treason, for having declared war against Parliament. But one sentence could be expected; Charles Stuart was doomed to the block. On the 30th of January, 1649, the unfortunate prince mounted the scaffold. "I go," said he, "from a corruptible to an

incorruptible crown." No sooner was the sentence executed than the whole nation forgot their wrongs in horror at the bloody deed.

The Quakers, a peaceful religious sect, originated about this time in England. In 1634 hackney-coaches were first introduced. Among the ladies of the court the strange fashion of beautifying their faces with *court-plaster*, cut into the shape of stars, half-moons, crosses, and various fanciful devices, became prevalent. In the New World, during the reign of Charles I., settlements were made in Maryland, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

Contemporaneous Sovereigns.

JAMES I., 1603-1625.	{ Henry IV., Louis XIII., of France; Philip III., Philip IV., of Spain; Rudolph II., Matthias, Ferdinand II., of Germany; Maurice, stadtholder.
CHARLES I., 1625-1649.	{ Louis XIII., Louis XIV., of France; Philip IV., of Spain; Ferdinand II., Ferdinand III., of Germany; Christian IV., of Denmark.



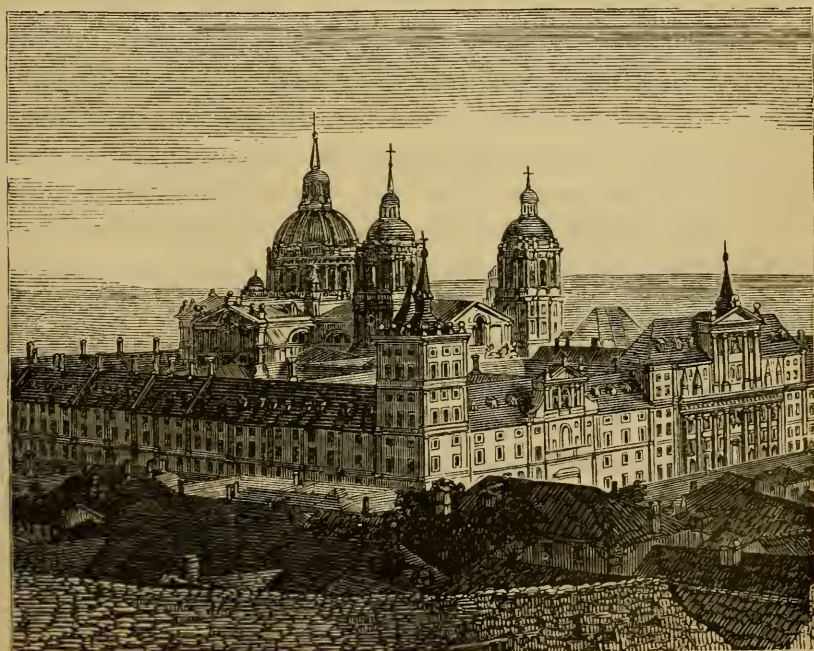
CHAPTER XLIV.

SPANISH GLORY AND ITS DECLINE.

Portugal.—This country we left, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, in a flourishing condition under Emanuel the Fortunate (p. 261). His son, John III., planted colonies in Brazil, which had been discovered in 1500 by Cabral. Sebastian, the successor of John, became distinguished for his expeditions against the Moors of northern Africa. In the last of these (1577-'78) the Portuguese army was destroyed, and the king was never heard of afterward. In 1580, Philip II. of Spain sent the Duke of Alva into Portugal at the head of an army, and was recognized as the rightful sovereign.

Age of Spanish Grandeur.—Philip II. of Spain, of whom we have already had occasion to speak in connection with Mary of England, the Invincible Armada, and the wars in the Netherlands, by the abdication of his father Charles V., became monarch of the richest and most extensive empire in the world. This embraced not only Spain, the Netherlands, and a portion of Italy, but also the Spanish-American possessions and tracts in Africa. To these Philip added the kingdom of Portugal, with its colonial dominions in the East Indies; it has been estimated that one-tenth of the population of the globe acknowledged his sway.

Gold and silver flowed into Philip's treasury from the American mines; the commerce of the Indies enriched his subjects; agriculture and manufactures flourished. Spain was adorned with magnificent edifices. Among them was the palace of the Escorial, the grandest monument of Phil-



THE ESCURIAL.

ip's reign, built in honor of St. Lawrence, to whom he ascribed his victory of St. Quentin over the French (p. 286). St. Lawrence was martyred by being broiled on a gridiron, and the ground-plan of the Escorial was made to imitate the bars and handle of this utensil. It contained the mausoleum of the Spanish kings.

Notwithstanding the glory of his empire and the vast resources at his command, the policy of Philip II. brought ruin upon Spain. His long and expensive foreign wars, already recounted, exhausted the country. The great object of his life was the advancement of Catholicism. The auto-da-fe (*act of faith*), as the burning of reformers was called, now became a common spectacle, and Protestantism was virtually extirpated in Spain by the terrible Inquisition.

The oppressive measures of Philip also drove the Moriscoes, or Christianized descendants of the Moors, to rebellion. They were forbidden to use the Arabic language or their national dress. Baths, enjoined by the religion of their forefathers, were denied them; and their women were prohibited from wearing veils, an eastern custom which they still practised. After retaliating on their Christian persecutors with fiendish barbarities, the Moriscoes were at last overpowered by Don John of Austria, Philip's half-brother, who had been sent to quell the insurrection. Thousands of them were driven from their flourishing towns, or massacred in the cities which they had defended; their sunny land was rendered desolate. Thus Spain, by ravaging her most fertile districts and destroying a thrifty population, hastened her own decay.

The reign of Philip is also memorable for wars with the Turks. In 1571, Don John, as admiral of the combined Spanish and Venetian squadrons, destroyed the Ottoman fleet and thirty thousand Mohammedans in the naval battle of Lepanto.

Philip II. was a sullen, gloomy, and vindictive despot, —not too good, if we may believe some historians, to poison his own son Don Carlos, for whom he had conceived a strong dislike. The best point in his character was patient industry, his maxim being, “Time and I against any two.” He died at the Escorial in 1598.

Successors of Philip II. — With Philip II. died the greatness of his country ; his successors were weak, indolent, and unfortunate.

PHILIP III. (1598–1621) struck a death-blow at the industries of his kingdom by banishing the remnant of the Moriscoes ; nearly a million of his most ingenious and useful citizens were by this suicidal policy driven across the Pyrenees or shipped to Africa. Idle ecclesiastics, who increased to an enormous extent and absorbed about one-fifth of the landed property, ill supplied their place.

PHILIP IV. (1621–1665) and his ambitious minister Olivares (*o-le-vah' res*) ingloriously failed in their attempt to make the House of Austria absolute in Europe, and bring back the United Provinces under the Spanish yoke. They had the mortification to see their territories ravaged by the English, Dutch, and French, and Portugal torn from their grasp.

The Portuguese colonies having been attacked by the Dutch, who conquered the Moluccas and founded Batavia in Java as the capital of their empire in the Indies, the eastern trade of Portugal was ruined. Her oppressed people finally revolted, and unanimously declared the Duke of Braganza their king, with the title of John IV. Philip vainly endeavored to re-establish his authority.

CHARLES II., a sickly child, on the death of his father Philip IV. in 1665, succeeded to the throne. During his long reign, the disasters of Spain culminated. The condition of the people was wretched in the extreme ; commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, almost ceased to

exist. On his death in 1700, the sovereigns of Europe contended for his vacant throne in a long and sanguinary war.

Literature of Southern Europe.—The sixteenth century was the golden age of Spanish and Portuguese literature. Among the writers of Spain was Lope de Vega (*lo'pa da va'gah*), who could compose a drama in a single day, and was the author of 2,200 plays—so popular that people spoke of a *Lope* jewel, or a *Lope* dress, when they meant one of superlative excellence. Herrera (*er-ra'rah*), the lyric poet and historian, was styled “the Divine” by his countrymen. But Cervantes has achieved a world-wide reputation; his “Don Quixote” has been translated into every language, and admired wherever genial humor could provoke a laugh.—In the following century, the dramatist Calderon rivalled Lope de Vega himself in fertility of invention.

Portugal gave birth to the poet Camoëns, whose reputation depends on “The Lusiad,” an epic designed to reflect glory on the history of his native land.

In Italy, during the sixteenth century, flourished Ariosto, author of the “Orlando Furioso,” a romantic poem on the adventures of the Paladins of Charlemagne’s age; Tasso, whose “Jerusalem Delivered” is the grand epic of the Italian language; and Macchiavelli (*mak-ke-ah-vel'li*), distinguished for his political work, “The Prince.”

One of the greatest of the Italians was Galile’o (1564–1642), the inventor of the pendulum and microscope, improver of the telescope, discoverer of the law of falling bodies, and author of various treatises on mechanics and astronomy. This profound philosopher, when interrogated as to his belief in a Supreme Being, picked up a straw and replied, “If there were nothing else in Nature to convince me of the existence of a God, this alone would be sufficient.”

Great Painters.

LEONARDO DA VINCI (*veen'che*), father of modern painting (1452-1519).

RA'PHAEL, the most illustrious of modern painters (1483-1520).

CORREGGIO (*cor-red'jo*), noted for softness and tenderness; for his "Penitent Magdalen," 18 inches square, \$30,000 was paid; (1494-1534).

MICHAEL AN'GELO, painter, sculptor,—one of the architects of St. Peter's Cathedral, Rome, the noblest of ecclesiastical structures (1474-1563).

TITIAN (*tish'e-an*), great colorist, head of the Venetian school (1477-1576).

PAUL VERONESE, rich in imagination, great in color (1530-1588).

GUIDO (*gwe'do*), a graceful and delicate painter of Bologna (1575-1642).

RU'BENS, the most celebrated of Flemish painters (1577-1640).

REM'BRANDT, great Dutch historical and portrait painter (1606-1669).

CLAUDE LORRAINE', prince of landscape-painters (1600-1682).

MURILLO, the most distinguished of Spanish painters (1618-1682).

 CHAPTER XLV.

ABOLITION OF MONARCHY IN ENGLAND.—THE TWO CROMWELLS.

The Commonwealth.—No sooner had the head of Charles I. fallen, than a proclamation was issued declaring it treason to give any one the title of king without the authority of Parliament. A few days later the House of Lords and office of king were abolished by the Commons, and the executive power was vested in a council of state consisting of forty-one members. Thus a *Commonwealth* was erected in England. So extreme were some of the republicans that, in reciting the Lord's Prayer, they would not say "thy kingdom," but "thy commonwealth come."

A powerful army, in the interest of the Independents, overawed the English nation; but when the intelligence of the king's death reached Scotland, a cry of indignation arose from the people. They had fought against him, they had sold him to his enemies, but Charles Stuart was

their native sovereign, and they now atoned for their unfaithfulness to him by loyalty to his son. The Prince of Wales, then in Holland, was proclaimed king, with the title of Charles II.,—but on condition of his subscribing to the Scottish Covenant.

After an unsuccessful attempt to obtain the crown without conditions (an attempt which cost the Marquis of Montrose his life), Charles finally thought it best to comply with the demands of the Scotch, landed in the country in 1650, and was acknowledged by the people as their king.

Meanwhile Charles had also been proclaimed in Ireland; Cromwell was therefore appointed lord-lieutenant of that island by Parliament, and sent against the royalists. With his army of “Ironsides” he quickly overcame the half-trained Irish. At Drogheda (*drö'h'he-dä*) orders were given for a general massacre. The garrison was put to the sword, and a thousand non-combatants, who had taken shelter in the church, were slaughtered by the Roundheads. Most of the towns, intimidated by this bloody policy, had opened their gates to the victors, when Cromwell was recalled for a campaign in Scotland.

The Independents, fearing that Charles II., if once seated firmly on the Scottish throne, would assert his right to the crown of England, lost no time in taking the field. In two great battles at Dun-bar' and Worcester, the royalists were overthrown, and Scotland was fain to submit to the arms of the English Commonwealth.

After the battle of Worcester, Charles met with a series of romantic adventures. Parliament offered a reward of £1,000 for his apprehension, and parties scoured the country in all directions, anxious to secure so valuable a prize. The prince, in the disguise of a peasant, with cropped hair and coarse garments, sought shelter with an honest farmer. Here he was employed in cutting fagots, and one day he was forced to hide in a bushy oak, from the branches of

which he could see the soldiers of the enemy looking for him below. At last he set out for the coast, mounted before a loyal lady in the character of her servant, and had the good fortune to escape in a vessel to Normandy.

The whole of Great Britain being thus reduced to submission, Parliament proposed the erection of a powerful Protestant republic, by incorporating Holland, now one of the foremost countries of Europe, with the Commonwealth. This did not suit the Dutch ; and Parliament was piqued into passing the Navigation Act, which forbade the importation of the products or manufactures of any foreign country into England, except in the ships of the producing country or in English vessels. Most of the carrying-trade of Europe being then in the hands of the Dutch, this act hurt them sorely, and provoked a naval war with the States. Van Tromp, the Dutch commander, gaining an important victory, fastened a broom to his mast-head, as a sign that he had swept the English from the seas ; but Blake, the British admiral, afterward punished his bravado, and the war resulted in the establishment of England's supremacy on the ocean.

Cromwell, meanwhile, was evidently aspiring to absolute sovereignty. The Long Parliament, having excited his displeasure, was forcibly dissolved in 1653. Cromwell went to the House at the head of three hundred soldiers, cleared the hall, locked the doors, and left with the keys in his pocket. The whole civil and military power of Great Britain was now in the hands of this remarkable man.

In order to preserve the appearance of a republic, a new parliament was summoned. It was composed principally of illiterate fanatics, and was contemptuously styled Barebone's Parliament from one of its members, a leather-seller called Praise-God Barebone. This assembly soon resigned its authority to Cromwell. The colonel of a party

of soldiers, sent to clear the House of refractory members, asked them what they did there. "We are seeking the Lord," was the reply. "Then," said he, "you may go elsewhere, for the Lord has not been here these many years." A new constitution was shortly afterward adopted by the officers of the army, and Cromwell was declared Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The Protectorate.—Cromwell now ruled as absolutely as any king in Europe. While his subjects feared him, foreign nations acknowledged his vigorous administration and courted his alliance. England had never been more powerful. Her fleet was mistress of the seas. Spain was humbled, Jamaica surrendered to an English admiral, and the pirates of the Barbary coast were compelled to respect the British flag. Cromwell was also the champion of the European Protestants, and is said to have notified the pope that unless he showed favor to *the people of God*, the English guns would be heard at Rome.

In 1657 the crown, with the title of king, was offered to Cromwell by a parliament of his own partisans; but while he coveted, he feared to accept, the proffered honor. He was well aware that his military government and arbitrary measures were odious to the great body of the nation. His own family opposed his assuming the regal dignity; and his daughter, when dying, upbraided him with his crimes, and is even said to have urged him to restore the crown to its rightful owner. Conspiracies were formed against him; and a tract appeared, entitled "Killing no Murder," which went to prove that the assassination of the protector would be justifiable. After Cromwell read it, he was never seen to smile. In constant dread of being murdered, he wore armor under his clothes, carried loaded pistols, and would not sleep in the same room more than three nights in succession. His spirit was broken, a fever seized him, and in 1658, on his birth-



CROMWELL AT HIS DAUGHTER'S DEATH-BED.

day, which he had always regarded as his "fortunate day," the usurper breathed his last.

Richard Cromwell, on the death of his father, was proclaimed protector, with the general consent of the nation.

A mild and well-meaning, but inexperienced man, with little resolution, he soon found himself involved in difficulties with both Parliament and army. It was not long before he signed his abdication, and returned to his quiet country life, for his attachment to which his father had called him *Lazy Dick*. But Lazy Dick once uttered a sentiment which it would have been well had his father acted on,—that he would rather submit to any suffering with a good name than be the greatest man on earth without it.

A period of anarchy followed his resignation, until May, 1660, when Parliament recalled Charles II. to the throne of his ancestors.

Contemporaneous Sovereigns.

OLIVER CROMWELL, 1653-1658.	{ Louis XIV., of France; Philip IV., of Spain; Ferdinand III. and Leopold I., of Germany; Frederick William, the Great, of Prussia; Frederick III., of Denmark; Christina and Charles X., of Sweden; Innocent X. and Alexander VII., popes; Alexis, of Russia; Mohammed IV., of Turkey.
RICHARD CROMWELL, 1658-1659.	



CHAPTER XLVI.

THE RESTORATION.—CHARLES II.—JAMES II. (1660-1688.)

Charles II. was welcomed by the English nation with great rejoicings. He entered London on his birthday (1660) amid waving banners and pealing bells, and remarked that it must have been his own fault he had stayed away so long, for everybody seemed delighted at his re-

turn. Unfettered by conditions he ascended the throne, as nearly absolute a ruler as any who had reigned in England since the Magna Charta was signed.

King Charles began his reign in a way to which none could take exception. For his advisers he chose eminent men. The Earl of Clarendon, a discreet and upright statesman, was placed at the head of the cabinet. The revolutionary army was disbanded, and all political offenders were pardoned except those concerned in the death of the late monarch. These regicides Charles deemed it his sacred duty to punish; ten of them were condemned to the scaffold; and the body of Cromwell was dug from the grave, and publicly hanged on the anniversary of the death of Charles I.

In 1661 the church of England was restored by Parliament, and hundreds of dissenting clergymen, who had become settled in the parish churches during the revolution, were obliged to give up their livings. It was next attempted to introduce Episcopacy into Scotland; but the people received the ministers sent them with volleys of stones, and followed their old pastors to barns and moors, determined to maintain the national Covenant to the death.

Against such worship in "conventicles" severe laws were enacted, and at last military force was employed for its suppression. Driven from their homes, hunted like wild beasts over mountain and heath, the intrepid Covenanters still met for praise and prayer with swords in their hands, and frays with the king's troopers were of constant occurrence. Though often defeated, condemned to the gibbet, and tortured with the iron boot and thumb-screw, they still insisted on their right to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences.

In 1662 Charles married the virtuous and amiable Catharine of Portugal; but he soon neglected his wife, and even encouraged his dissolute friends to insult her

before his face. He abandoned himself to profligacy, and made no attempt to conceal or excuse his shameless conduct. Licentiousness ran riot at his court, and vice flaunted without rebuke.

In fact, throughout the kingdom, a marked reaction had taken place. In the days of Puritan and Independent ascendancy, not only had intemperance, gambling, profanity, and immorality of every kind, been visited with severe penalties, but even gayety, amusements, and frivolous fashions of dress, had been discountenanced. Laughter was regarded as the sign of a worldly spirit; long faces and long sermons, stiffness, formality, and precision, were the order of the day. But under Charles II. all this was changed; the popular current set the other way, and carried with it all the old-time notions of propriety.

In 1665, in compliance with the wishes of the people, war was declared against Holland. After some reverses, the Dutch fleet at last swept the English coast, spread its triumphant pennants in the Thames, destroyed the shipping, and threatened the capital itself with destruction. But the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam in America fell into the hands of the English (1664); its name was changed to New York in honor of the Duke of York, the king's brother. The whole Atlantic coast from Maine to Georgia now belonged to England.

THE PLAGUE OF LONDON.—During the war with Holland, London was desolated by a terrible plague (1665). The nobility, the royal family, and all who had the means, fled; but the poorer classes perished by thousands. A red cross was painted on the doors of infected houses, with the words, "Lord have mercy on us!" and all communication with the inmates was forbidden. At night the dead were collected in carts; no coffins were provided, no mourners allowed to follow their deceased friends, but the corpses were thrown into pits. Whole rows of houses

stood deserted, grass grew in the recently crowded streets, and the few who ventured out carefully avoided each other. To add to the terror of the scene, fanatics, believing themselves inspired, traversed the city, denouncing divine wrath on the people. The pestilence extended over the greater part of the kingdom ; a hundred thousand persons died in the capital alone.

Many of the Presbyterian clergy returned during the plague, to minister to the sick and dying. On the pretext that they had then disseminated seditious principles, Parliament passed what was called the Five-Mile Act, which prohibited all ministers that did not conform to the established church from coming within five miles of any town or village, thus dooming them to hardships, if not actual starvation.

THE GREAT FIRE.—The plague was followed (1666) by a destructive conflagration, which rendered homeless and destitute two hundred thousand of the inhabitants of London. This fire, though a terrible affliction at the time, ultimately proved a blessing ; for the plague, together with the filth that kept it alive, was thoroughly burned out, and has not appeared in London since. The streets were widened, and well-ventilated brick houses took the place of the former close wooden tenements.

To Sir Christopher Wren, the greatest of England's architects, was committed the rebuilding of the public edifices. His grandest work is St. Paul's Cathedral, the most magnificent Protestant church in the world. Sir Christopher was buried within its walls. "If you ask for his monument, look around," is the inscription placed over his remains.

The misfortunes that had befallen the nation excited the murmurs of the English people. Other causes of discontent were soon added. Charles dismissed Clarendon in disgrace, and intrusted the government to five unprin-

cipléd men.* For a large annual pension, he assisted the king of France in attempting to subjugate Protestant Holland. The Duke of York, the heir presumptive, embraced the Roman Catholic faith. The popular voice demanded additional securities for the reformed religion; and consequently Parliament in 1673 passed the Test Act, a law which, among other provisions, excluded from public offices all who refused to receive the sacrament according to the rites of the church of England. In the following year, as the Dutch defended themselves with vigor and the Commons would not grant supplies for carrying on the war against them, peace with the States was concluded.

LOTS.—In 1678 Titus Oates, a disgraced clergyman, pretended to have discovered a Popish plot to burn London, and destroy the Protestant religion by a general slaughter of all who professed it. Amid the popular panic consequent upon this false allegation, many were unjustly suspected and executed. Oates afterward received seventeen hundred stripes, and, surviving this torture, was thrown into prison.

There was no pretence, however, about the Rye House Plot (so called from one of the places where the conspirators met), which had in view simultaneous risings for the purpose of preventing the succession of the Duke of York. The discovery of this plot brought two illustrious men, Lord Russell and Algernon Sydney, to the block.

WHIGS AND TORIES.—The death of Charles II. took place in 1685. His great stumbling-block, like that of all the Stuarts, was too high a notion of the royal prerogative. Those who held such views now began to be called *Tories*, while the other great political party, who supported the rights of the people, were distinguished as

* These were popularly called the *Cabal*, as the initials of the names of the five ministers, Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, formed this word.

Whigs. Both names were originally applied as terms of reproach. *Whig* (whey) meant "sour milk," a favorite drink of the Scottish Covenanters; *Tory* was derived from the Irish Rapparees, a band of robbers, who in calling people to surrender cried "toree," give me.—Through the efforts of Shaftesbury, one of the most prominent Whig leaders, Parliament passed the celebrated *Habeas Corpus* Act, which, insuring to a prisoner the right of being brought before a judge and having the grounds for his confinement examined into, has ever since been regarded as the great bulwark of personal liberty.

We find the strait-laced dresses of Cromwell's day now replaced with rich and flowing draperies, set off with feathers and ribbons. The ladies painted, the gentlemen covered their shoulders with long false curls.

LITERARY MEN.—In the reign of Charles II. flourished the immortal Milton, the blind author of "Paradise Lost" and "Paradise Regained"—the former the great epic of the English language; Dryden, poet-laureate, and translator of Virgil's *Æneid*; Samuel Butler, who wrote the witty "Hudibras;" and John Bunyan, "the poor tinker of Bedford," who in a damp prison-cell composed the "Pilgrim's Progress"—a book that next to the Bible has perhaps been more read than any other English work.

James II., Duke of York, on the death of his brother without heirs, ascended the throne. He had long been unpopular on account of his attachment to the Catholic church. Once he took occasion to caution Charles about the danger of walking out with only a few attendants. "Not a bit of danger," replied his brother, "for I am sure no one in England would kill me to make you king."

MONMOUTH'S REBELLION. — Scarcely had James assumed the crown of England, when the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II., invaded the kingdom. Though numbers supported the movement, Monmouth

was defeated, captured, and condemned to death. Many suffered in consequence of this rebellion. A commission was appointed under the brutal Judge Jeffreys, to pass through the insurgent districts and punish all who had taken part in the insurrection. The sessions of this court, from the enormities which it committed, were long remembered as the Bloody Assizes.

It very soon became apparent that James had no intention of maintaining the established church or respecting the rights of the people. He not only attended mass himself, but by various arbitrary measures labored for the restoration of Roman Catholicism throughout the realm. General distrust was awakened by his high-handed proceedings.

REVOLUTION OF 1688.—The national discontent at last reached such a height that it could be satisfied only with the deposition of the king. James's daughter Mary had espoused William of Orange, stadtholder of Holland and the leading Protestant sovereign of Europe. This prince many friends of Protestantism and liberty desired to place on the English throne, and messengers were secretly sent to solicit his presence and aid.

William accordingly appeared on the coast with a strong armament, in November, 1688. His reception was cordial; both political parties declared against the Stuart king. When James heard that his daughter Anne had taken sides with the Prince of Orange, he cried in anguish, "God help me! even my own children have forsaken me." He hastened to send his wife and infant son out of the country. One dark rainy night, the queen, wrapping her baby in a cloak, was conducted by a French noble to a boat in the river, and escaped in safety to France. James soon followed her.

Parliament then declared the throne vacant, and decreed that the Prince and Princess of Orange should reign



FLIGHT OF THE QUEEN.

jointly as king and queen of England;* for William had

* The infant son of James by his second wife, an Italian princess, who left the kingdom as just narrated, was thus virtually excluded from the succession. He was afterward known as the Pretender, or Chevalier St. George. Mary and Anne were the daughters of James by his first wife.

already informed the convention that "he would not be tied to the apron-strings even of the best of wives."—Thus was accomplished the bloodless revolution of 1688.

English Colonies in the New World.—In the reign of Charles II. a rebellion took place in Virginia against the tyrannical governor Berkeley, during which Jamestown was burned to the ground. The region called Carolina, in honor of Charles IX. of France, was colonized; and William Penn, a Quaker, obtained an extensive tract west of the Delaware, which the king named Pennsylvania, "the forest-land of Penn."

Penn sent out a number of emigrants to settle his domain, and sailed himself with more in 1682. The following year he laid the foundations of the city of Philadelphia. By honest and kind dealing he secured the goodwill of the Indians, and the treaty they made with him was never broken. The Quaker settlements enjoyed entire exemption from the Indian wars by which the other colonies were from time to time ravaged.

The New England colonies became involved in hostilities with the Indians, known as King Philip's War, and several of their towns were burned by the savages. On the accession of the Duke of York, the charters of the northern colonies having been revoked, Sir Edmund Andros became the despotic governor of New England.

Inventions, Improvements, etc.

Streets of London dimly lighted by lanterns hung out by the citizens. Average wages in England, 4s. a week for farmers, 6s. for mechanics. First coffee-house in England opened at Oxford, in 1651; first in London, 1652. Tea sold in London in 1657. Air-pump invented by Guericke (*gher'ik-keh*), of Magdeburg, in 1650; improved by the English philosopher Boyle, in 1658. Huygens (*hi'ghens*), a great Dutch philosopher, invented the pendulum-clock, 1657; discovered Saturn's ring with his improved telescope, 1659; invented the spiral spring for regulating the balance of watches, 1675.

CHAPTER XLVII.

AGE OF LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.

Louis XIV. at his birth was called by the joyful people "the God-given." As Louis XIII. approached his end, the child, then but five years old, supposing him dead, exultingly exclaimed, "I am Louis XIV." "Not yet," whispered the dying parent. Soon after, however, the golden-haired boy was hailed as king (1643), and his mother, Anne of Austria, was made regent during his minority.

The queen regent chose for her prime minister Cardinal Mazarin (*maz-a-reen'*), an Italian, who proved an able successor of Richelieu. During his administration France was involved in the Thirty Years' War; and after the peace of Westphalia, hostilities continued with Spain. To pay the expenses of these foreign wars, as well as to support the luxury of the court, heavy taxes were levied. The Parliament of Paris protested; nor was it long before the people, joined by many of the nobles, broke out into insurrection.

This revolt was derisively called the civil war of the *Fronde*, because the party opposed to the court persevered in their resistance, as street boys returned to fight with their slings (*frondes*) after having been scattered by the police. The name at once became popular. Ladies wore their lockets in slings, and embroidered their dresses with the same device.

Mazarin was obliged to flee from France; but the Frondeurs were afterward put down, and he re-entered Paris in triumph. In 1659 he negotiated the Treaty of the Pyrenees, which ended the war with Spain. One evening he announced the joyful news to the queen. "What!" she exclaimed, "peace?" "Better, madam," replied Mazarin, "I bring you not only peace, but the In-

fanta.”* Louis received the hand of the daughter of the Spanish king, with a dowry of half a million crowns.

Cardinal Mazarin confirmed that absolute authority which Richelieu had gained for the crown. After the death of this great statesman, Louis XIV. resolved to govern without a prime minister. When asked who should be consulted on matters of public business, he replied, “Myself.” His rule soon became despotic, and his famous declaration, “I am the state,” was emphatically true.

In the first few years of his reign, Louis indulged in unworthy pleasures. Despite the immorality of the king and his favorites, however, the splendor of his court and the talents of the learned men by whom it was adorned became renowned throughout Christendom. The other countries of Europe not only adopted the polished language and tasty fashions of Paris, but perfected the education of their youth at the world’s capital. Louis himself was the most polite man in his kingdom; he did not consider it beneath his dignity to raise his hat to the humblest peasant-woman. Yet his air was regal and his attitude commanding. An old officer who once waited on him to ask a favor was so confused in the royal presence that he could only stammer out, “I hope your majesty will not believe that I tremble thus before your enemies.”

The administration of Louis XIV. was supported by the greatest generals and the most accomplished ministers of the age. Colbert (*kol-bare’*), who raised himself from the humble position of a woollen-draper’s apprentice to that of comptroller-general of finance, developed the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom. Remembering the Duke of Sully’s maxim, “Pasturage and tillage are the nurses of the state,” he also encouraged agriculture and the rearing of cattle. He improved the travelling facilities, and united the Atlantic with the Mediterranean by

* The title of the royal princesses of Spain.

the Canal of Languedoc. Many public works, including the Academy of Sciences, the Observatory, the Garden of the Tuileries (*tweel-re'*), and the sumptuous Palace of Versailles, bear witness to the munificence and genius of Colbert.

In 1667, Louis XIV., ambitious of military glory, invaded the Spanish Netherlands, which he claimed in the name of his wife on the death of her father, Philip IV. This alarmed the nations, and led to the Triple Alliance on the part of England, Holland, and Sweden. The French king was checked in the midst of a glorious career; but he soon succeeded in bribing Charles II. to detach himself from the league and declare war against the United Provinces. Sweden also having been gained over by his intrigues, an army of 120,000 men, led by the king in person supported by the ablest generals in Europe,—Turenne, Vauban (*vo-bon^{g'}*), and the Great Condé, advanced upon Holland.

The French were armed with bayonets, a weapon now used for the first time. In forty days their victorious standards waved within a few miles of Amsterdam. William III. of Orange, elected stadtholder, rejected the humiliating terms offered by Louis, declaring his determination to die disputing the last ditch rather than witness the ruin of the republic. The dikes were cut; the waters of the German Ocean were let in upon the fertile fields of Holland; and her capital was saved.

In the face of other coalitions against him, Louis achieved fresh triumphs, adding to France portions of the conquered territory. He conducted several brilliant campaigns with no less skill than he managed diplomatic affairs, and was hailed by the general voice as the *Grand Monarch*.

Nor were the French arms less successful on the ocean. Duquesne (*dü-kehn'*) upheld the honor of his country's

flag against Holland, defeating the Dutch admiral De Ruyter (*deh ri'ter*) in a battle off Sicily. He also punished the Algerine pirates, and obliged them to liberate many Christian captives. Duquesne was a Protestant; when the king informed him that his religious views were a bar to his promotion, the hero pointedly remarked, "Sire, when I fought your majesty's enemies, I did not inquire what religion they were of."

REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES.—In 1685



LOUIS XIV. SIGNING THE REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES.

Louis XIV. revoked the Edict of Nantes, at the instigation of his second wife Madame de Maintenon (*man't-non'*), who exercised great influence over him in public as well as private affairs. The Huguenot worship was prohibited on pain of death, the reformed churches were closed, and lawless soldiers were quartered on Protestant families to eat up their substance in default of their conversion. No less than five hundred thousand persons fled from their native land, carrying their wealth and manufacturing skill into England, Holland, and Germany. The Protestants who remained suffered the most cruel privations; and persecution at last drove the Camisards, who dwelt in the beautiful valleys of Cévennes (*sa-ven'*), to rebellion (1703). With "Liberty of Conscience" inscribed on their banners, they boldly resisted the French marshals in a long and frightful civil war.

War of the Spanish Succession.—Charles II., the last of the Hapsburg kings of Spain, died in 1700 (p. 324), after naming as his successor Philip of Anjou, a Bourbon prince, grandson of Louis XIV. In spite of the impoverished condition of his kingdom, exhausted by continuous wars, Louis determined to support the claim of his relative. But England, Holland, and Germany, fearing the union of France and Spain, formed the Grand Alliance to place the Archduke Charles, second son of the emperor Leopold, on the Spanish throne.

A destructive war of thirteen years followed. The allies, led by the English general, the Duke of Marlborough, and Prince Eugene of Sav'oy, achieved glorious victories on the fields of Blenheim (*blen'im*), Oudenarde (*ow-den-ar'-deh*), and Malplaquet (*mahl-plah-ka'*) (see Map, p. 416). Prince Eugene, disliked by Louis from boyhood, and refused the command of a French regiment for which he had applied, had tendered his services to the Austrians, and found ample employment in their long and bloody wars.

Louis declared that he should never return to France, but Eugene spiritedly retorted, "I will enter it sword in hand." This threat he now fulfilled; and the Grand Monarch, in his old age, overcome with sorrow at the death of his children and the wretchedness of his people, was threatened in his metropolis by the military genius which he might have made the strongest bulwark of his power. Diplomacy, at this juncture, accomplished for Louis what he could not hope to effect by arms; and in 1713, the succession of the House of Bourbon in Spain, in the person of Philip V., was acknowledged on condition of his renouncing all claim to the crown of France.

Louis XIV. died in 1715, bequeathing to the French nation an immense debt—the fruit of his wars. It is recorded that, during his reign of seventy-two years, one million human lives were sacrificed to his ambition.

Golden Age of French Literature.—The age of Louis XIV. is illustrious for the greatest of French writers—Corneille (*kor-nale'*), whose "Cid" marks a new epoch in the history of the French drama; Racine (*ras-seen'*), the tragedian, ranked by Hallam next to Shakespeare among all the moderns; Molière (*mo-le-air'*), the irresistible writer of comedy; Bossuet (*bos-swa'*) and Massillon (*mah-seel-yon''*), unsurpassed in pulpit eloquence; Boileau (*bwah-lo'*), "the French Horace;" Fén'e-lon, Archbishop of Cambray, whose "Telemachus" yields in popularity to no other work that French literature has produced; and La-fontaine', "the prince of fabulists."

French Colonies.—In the early part of the seventeenth century the St. Lawrence River was explored by the French navigator Champlain, Quebec was founded, and Canada with Acadie (Nova Scotia) received the name of New France. The French Jesuit missionaries subsequently passed through the Great Lakes, and made their way to the Mississippi. In 1682, La Salle sailed down this

river to the Gulf of Mexico, and took possession of the country, which he called Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV. New Orleans and Natchez were founded in the beginning of the next century. By the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), France surrendered Hudson Bay Territory, Newfoundland, and Acadie, to England.

During the seventeenth century settlements were also made in French Guiana and Madagascar; and Pondicherry in Hindostan was purchased from the rajah, or native prince.

The Seventeenth Century.

An age of great mental activity, displayed in the different departments of literature, philosophy, and science, particularly in England and France. Bacon (1561–1626) grounded all inquiries after knowledge on *experiment*, instead of the *speculation* of the schoolmen, and substituted for the old method of Aristotle his improved method of *induction*. Descartes (*da-kart'*), a leading French philosopher, introduced a system of pure *ration-alism*. The German astronomer Kepler (1571–1660), investigating the laws of the planetary motions, prepared the way for Newton. Blaise Pascal, a celebrated French mathematician and philosopher, flourished about the middle of the century.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE ORANGE-STUARTS IN ENGLAND.—QUEEN ANNE.—(1689–1714.)

William and Mary.—The accession of William and Mary was not altogether peaceful. James II. had adherents in both Scotland and Ireland. In the former country his banner was raised by Graham of Claverhouse (*klav'-er-us*), the merciless persecutor of the Covenanters, whose Highlanders were victorious, while he himself fell, and with him the hopes of his party, at Killiecrankie (1689).

Meanwhile James, sailing from France, had landed in Ireland. He was received with enthusiasm by the Catholics, but the Protestants rose in arms for the protection of their liberties and religion. The 'prentice-boys of Londonderry closed the gates of that city in the face of the Catholic army ; the inhabitants, pushed in a protracted siege to the very verge of starvation, were at length relieved by the appearance of an English fleet.

In 1690, William, who had taken the field in person, defeated the French and Irish forces of James in the battle of the Boyne. While the engagement was still going on, James fled ingloriously from the field. "Change kings with us," said an Irish captain to an Englishman, "and we will fight you over again." But James thought it prudent to embark for France and leave the fighting to be done by his adherents. With the surrender of Limerick, however, the struggle terminated, and the whole kingdom submitted. The Treaty of Limerick guaranteed civil and religious liberty to the Irish Catholics ; nevertheless twelve thousand of them emigrated, to follow the fortunes of their exiled king.

A final effort to restore James II. to the English throne was made in 1692 by Louis XIV. But the French fleet was destroyed in the battle of La Hogue. James from the shore witnessed this decisive overthrow of his last hope ; amid his disappointment, he could not help admiring the gallant conduct of his late subjects. "None but my brave English," he exclaimed, "could do this."

The death of Mary in 1694 left William sole monarch of England. The close of the century witnessed a lull in hostilities most grateful to the people ; but in 1701 James II. died, and Louis XIV. acknowledged his son as "King of Great Britain and Ireland." On this William prepared for a renewal of war, when he was thrown from his horse and received an injury that resulted in his death, 1702.

During the reign of William III. the Bank of England was incorporated, the coinage purified, and the liberty of the press established. Stamp duties were introduced. The first auction was held in England. Loans raised by the government laid the foundation of the national debt.

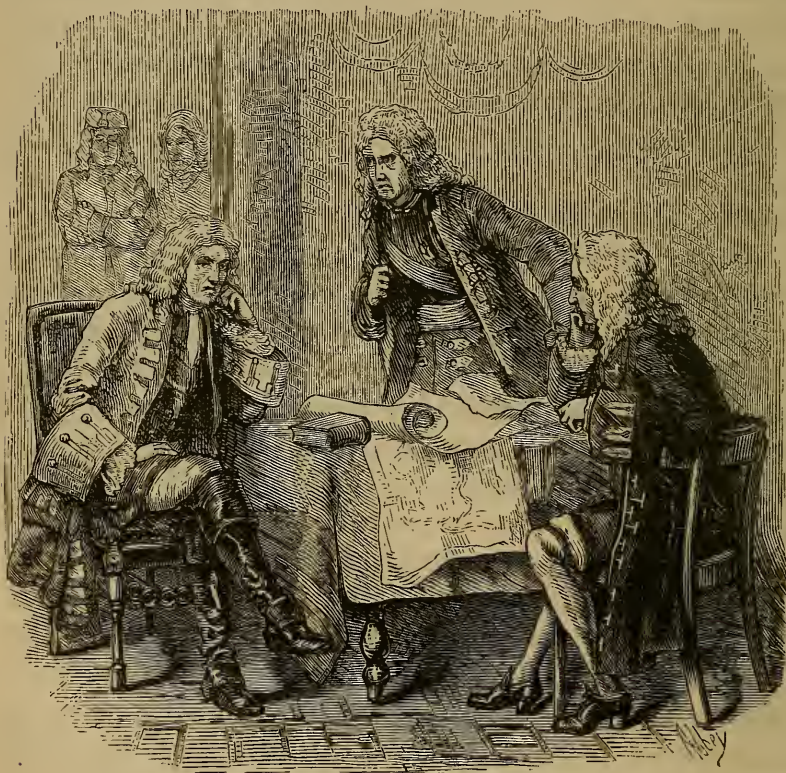
At the head of the distinguished men of the day was Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727), the greatest of modern philosophers, the discoverer of the binomial theorem and the law of gravitation, author of the "Principia" and of many scientific treatises. We may also mention John Locke, eminent for his "Essay on the Human Understanding;" Bishop Burnet, the historian; and Tillotson and South, celebrated divines.

Anne.—As William and Mary died childless, the princess Anne, daughter of James II., who had married George of Denmark, succeeded to the throne. The Whig party advocated war with France; and the queen, finally resolving to pursue the policy of William, joined Holland and the German Empire against Louis XIV. The events of this War of the Spanish Succession have been already related (p. 343). The balance of power was preserved in Europe, and glory was obtained for England by her immortal military chieftain, the Duke of Marlborough, who "never besieged a city which he did not take, nor fought a battle that he did not win." England still possesses a valuable trophy of this war, in Gibraltar, which art and nature have combined to make one of the strongest fortresses in the world, if not absolutely impregnable.

Queen Anne was an amiable woman, a model wife and mother; but her abilities were moderate, and she allowed herself to be governed by favorites. Among these was the Duchess of Marlborough. It is said that the queen, having taken the liberty of ordering a bottle of wine for her laundress every day on her own responsibility, was indignantly upbraided for an hour by the duchess, who even

declared that she never wanted to see her royal mistress again. The queen calmly answered, "The seldomer, the better."

At last Anne tired of this imperious favorite; "the Great Duke," her husband, was dismissed from his high offices, and the Tory party came into power. Marlborough



MARLBOROUGH AND EUGENE IN COUNCIL.

retired to the continent. The following story is illustrative of his great self-command. On one occasion, at a council of war, Prince Eugene denounced him as a coward for refusing to make an attack on the enemy. Marlborough calmly listened to the insult without resenting it. The next morning he awoke the prince, and in explana-

tion of his conduct stated that there was a person present at their conference who would have betrayed their plans. "Now," said he, "I am ready for the attack." The prince, overcome with shame, apologized.

The union of England and Scotland in "the United Kingdom of Great Britain" (1707) is the chief political event that marks this period. Both countries were henceforth represented by one parliament. The latter part of Anne's reign was disturbed by the bitter dissensions of the Whigs and Tories. Her health was visibly affected by the wrangling of her ministers, and in 1714 her death took place. With Anne the direct line of the Stuarts ended.

During Anne's reign no one was executed for treason, but slight offences were punishable with death. Even after her time two lads were hanged for stealing two shillings, and a man met the same fate for appropriating a cane.—Fans, almost unknown in the time of Elizabeth, now became an indispensable part of a lady's costume, on all occasions.

Golden Age of English Literature. — Queen Anne's reign is often distinguished as the Augustan Age of English literature. The principal writers of this period were, Pope, whose "sonorous couplets brilliant with antithesis" will ever make his "Essay on Man," "Essay on Criticism," and translations of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* to be read and admired; Steele and Addison, the fathers of periodical literature, whose fame rests on the "*Tatler*" and the "*Spectator*;" * Swift, the keen wit, and satirical author of "*Gulliver's Travels*" and the "*Tale of a Tub*;" Gay, the poet; Bolingbroke, an historical and philosophi-

* The *Tatler* was a periodical paper, called so by Steele in honor of the fair sex. The *Spectator*, a periodical planned by Addison, became the most popular work in England; twenty thousand numbers were sometimes sold in one day.

cal writer ; and Daniel Defoe, who in "Robinson Crusoe" still opens a treasure-house of amusement to the young.

American Colonies.—After the accession of William III., the French and Indians commenced hostilities against the English in America. During the war, which was called King William's War, a force from Canada surprised and destroyed the town of Schenectady in New York. Several New England villages were also burned by the savages.

About this time (1692) a strange delusion spread through New England. People declared that they were pinched and bruised by invisible demons, charging friendless old women, and in some cases even their own kindred, with bewitching them. The accused were readily convicted by superstitious judges, or on their own confessions wrung from them by torture. Twenty unfortunates fell victims to the witch-mania before the eyes of the people were opened to its horrors.

In Queen Anne's New England War, the frontier settlements were again attacked by the savages, and the town of Deerfield, Massachusetts, was burned by a party of French and Indians.

Cotton was raised at Jamestown as an experiment, early in the seventeenth century. The Carolina colonists also produced it in small quantities about 1700 ; the importance of the crop, however, was hardly appreciated till the close of the eighteenth century. Rice began to be cultivated in South Carolina in 1694, and four years later sixty tons were exported to England.

English Sovereigns: House of Stuart.

James I., 1603.	Charles II., 1660.
Charles I., 1625.	James II., 1685.
Commonwealth, 1649-1653.	William and Mary, . . 1689.
Protectorate, . 1653-1659.	Anne, 1702.

CHAPTER XLIX.

DECLINE OF OTTOMAN POWER.—CONTEMPORARY ASIATIC MONARCHIES.

Military Despotism.—Under Solyman the Magnificent, the military power of the Turks reached its height. His successors were generally weak, or engrossed in pleasure and debauchery. They had the power of life and death over their subjects, and exercised it with great cruelty. To secure himself upon the throne, it was the custom of each new sultan to have his brothers strangled. Executions of this kind were performed by mutes, deprived of their tongues in order to insure their secrecy.

The emperors seldom appeared at the head of their armies, which were led by grand viziers. The latter also administered the government; while the Janizaries, once the support of the state, became insubordinate—elevated, dethroned, and murdered sultans at their pleasure—and were the real power in the empire. This body of troops, all but invincible when controlled by the warlike monarchs of the past, rapidly degenerated under such effeminate rulers. At last they were compelled to yield the palm to the superior courage and tactics of the soldiers of Christendom.

Turkish Wars.—During this period of military despotism, the Turks were still formidable to the other European nations. In the early part of the seventeenth century, a disastrous war with Persia occupied them so thoroughly as to prevent for a time their usual incursions in the West. Amurath IV., the Intrepid (1623–1640), partially restored the glory of the empire, suppressed a mutiny of the Janizaries, and marching against the Persians captured Bagdad. During the reign of the next sultan, a sanguinary war began with Venice, which lasted twenty-four years.

In 1669, Candia, the capital of Crete, was taken after a siege which cost Mohammed IV. a hundred and twenty thousand men. The island was ceded to the Ottomans, and the maritime power of Venice in the Grecian Archipelago was destroyed.

Mohammed IV. also invaded Poland in person; but his army was defeated by John Sobieski, "the Buckler of Christ," at Khotin'—the most signal reverse that the infidels had yet suffered on a European battle-field.

With not more than 15,000 men, Sobieski afterward held in check 200,000 Moslems, hurling back in their faces, when ammunition failed him, the balls that fell within his intrenchments. The superstitious enemy regarded him as more than mortal; and, deeming it useless to fight against a "wizard king," offered him honorable terms. The Ottoman power, however, had received no material check up to 1683.

Siege of Vienna.—In this year, all Europe was thrown into consternation by the news that an immense army of Turks and Tartars, under the command of the grand vizier of Mohammed IV., was marching upon Vienna. The oppression of Austria had driven the freedom-loving Hungarians to revolt, and one of their nobles had sought aid of the Porte.* Mohammed recognized him as "King of the Hungarians and Transylvanians," and instigated by Louis XIV., the deadly enemy of the House of Austria, dispatched this formidable host into the German Empire. They were soon before the walls of Vienna.

Three thousand suppliants who came forth from the city were slaughtered by the ferocious Tartars; their death-shrieks, borne back to the capital, determined the governor to hold out to the last with his slender garrison.

* The government of the Turkish Empire is called the *Ottoman* or *Sublime Porte*, from the gate (*port*) of the sultan's palace, where justice was administered.

Leopold, the emperor, had already fled ; and Austria, in this crisis, called upon Poland for aid.

Sobieski, who had been elected king of that country in 1674, with the title of John III., responded to the call. When almost at the mercy of the Moslem soldiery, the despairing Viennese beheld his signal-rockets. At the head of the chivalry of Poland, Sobieski fearlessly bore down upon the Turkish ranks.

The vizier, believing that the Christians were rushing upon their death, coolly reclined in his tent of crimson silk, sipping coffee with his sons. But Sobieski's name, as it was repeated from line to line of the besieging army, struck terror into every heart. The khan of the Tartars cried in dismay, "It is the wizard king!" A lunar eclipse which now occurred completed the panic of the Mussulmans. The vizier was forced to relinquish what an hour before seemed his certain prey, and fled, leaving rich spoil in the hands of the victor.

Thus Europe was saved from the Mohammedan arms, and all Christendom resounded with the praises of John Sobieski. He entered Vienna through the breach made by the Turks, and was hailed by the joyful people as their deliverer, while the clergy applied to him the scriptural words, "There was a man sent from God, whose name was John." In announcing his victory to the pope, Sobieski improved on the sublime sentence of Cæsar: "I came, I saw, God conquered." The emperor Leopold treated the hero, to whom he owed his crown, with shameful ingratitude ; and Austria subsequently repaid with fire and sword the services rendered her by Poland in 1683.

Sobieski died in 1696, and "with him the glory of Poland descended into the tomb."

The Ottoman Power broken.—The spell of Turkish triumphs in Europe was now broken. The warlike sultan Mustapha II. (*möös'tah-fah*), it is true, conducted a brief

campaign victoriously in Hungary, but he was badly defeated by Prince Eugene in the battle of Zenta (1697).

Leopold had sent a letter to Eugene, forbidding him to risk an engagement. But Eugene, guessing its import, thrust it into his pocket unopened, and at once fell upon the Turks. For this he was arrested at Vienna, but his popularity with the army compelled his speedy release.

The defeat of Zenta crushed the spirit of the Ottomans. Mustapha sued for peace, and by the treaty of Carlowitz (1699) ceded Hungary and Transylvania to Austria, Morea (southern Greece) to Venice, and important provinces to the Poles. Thus the Ottoman Porte was humiliated, and the declining empire of Turkey ceased to be a terror to Europe. In 1717 Eugene gained another great victory at Belgrade, capturing the city. At the close of this war, the Turkish sultan presented Eugene with a cimeter and a turban. "The one," said he, "is the emblem of your valor, the other of your genius and wisdom."

Persia.—In the beginning of the sixteenth century, Ishmael Shah overthrew the Turkomans and established his authority throughout Persia. Under the Suffee dynasty, thus commenced, Persia partially regained its former prestige. Shah Abbas the Great (1585–1627) became renowned for his conquests and wise government.

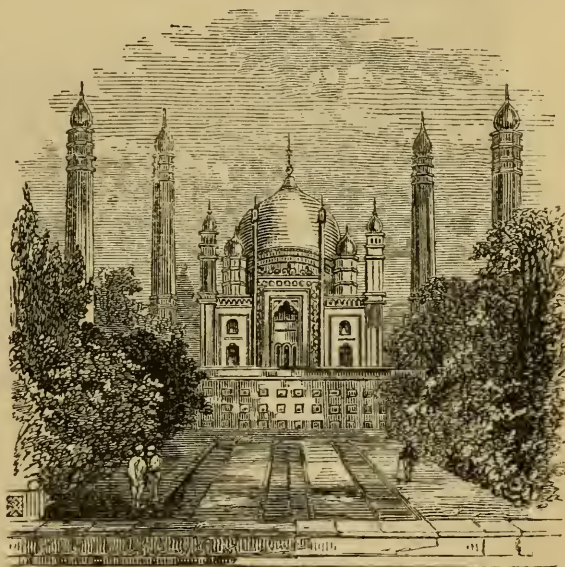
During the reign of Abbas, the empire was greatly improved and beautified; Ispahan (*is-pä-hahn'*) was made the capital; and Persia reached the pinnacle of its modern greatness. After his death the power of the nation rapidly declined. In the next century, the Suffee dynasty was supplanted by the Afghans (1722), who a few years later were themselves overthrown by Nadir (*nah'dir*), a general of the Suffee prince. Having established himself on the throne (1736), Nadir Shah raised Persia again to a high position of power and glory.

India, in the seventeenth century, flourished under the

Mohammedan descendants of Tamerlane. The Mogul Empire had attained to wealth and civilization in the latter half of the previous century, through the able management of Akbar, whose war-elephants are said to have numbered six thousand, and whose revenue amounted to ten million pounds sterling.

The greatest of Akbar's line was Au'rungzebe (*ornament of the throne*). The reign of this monarch (1658–1707) was the most brilliant period of the Mogul power.

Several imposing hospitals and mosques are monuments of his munificence; one of the latter, erected in memory of his daughter, still bears his name. His empire extended beyond Hindostan, and his wealth was incredible; a golden globe was carried be-



MOSQUE OF AURUNGZEBE.

fore him, as symbolical of the title he assumed—"Conqueror of the World." Yet he signified that there was a small portion independent of his sway, by tearing off a corner from the sheets on which he wrote his letters.

During the reign of Aurungzebe, the Mahratta nation, consisting of associated Hindoo tribes, arose in India. Both French and English had stations in the country.

China.—The dynasty which in 1368 had succeeded the Mongol line of Genghis Khan in China, was overthrown

about the middle of the seventeenth century by the Mantchoo Tartars. The dynasty then established has continued to the present time.

Kang-hi, the second Mantchoo emperor, restored peace and prosperity to the country, granted religious toleration, and even allowed a Christian church to be built in his palace by the Jesuits. The missionaries were afterward expelled; and the attempts of European governments to establish commercial relations with the Chinese were generally unavailing.

1700 A. D.—William III. king of England and stadtholder of the United Provinces. Great advance of literature and science in England; Newton at the height of his glory; Pope, writing verses at the age of twelve, catches a glimpse of Dryden, then in the last year of his life. Fifty-seventh year of the reign of Louis XIV. of France. Forty-second year of Aurungzebe's reign in Hindostan. Philip V. (House of Anjou) named king of Spain. Genoa and Venice, republics. Charles XII. defeats Peter the Great at Narva. Turkish power broken. English and French settlements on the eastern coast of America. Frenchmen exploring the lower Mississippi.



CHAPTER L.

PETER THE GREAT OF RUSSIA AND CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

Russia, after its reduction by Oktai (p. 222), remained tributary to the great Khan of the Golden Horde about two centuries. The Russian prince was required to admit the Tartar chief's superiority, when they met, by holding his stirrup for him to mount.

The Russians were finally delivered from the Mongol dominion by Ivan the Great, who ascended the throne in 1462. Besides other acquisitions, rich Novgorod was con-

quered and annexed to his dominions ; three hundred chariot-loads of gold and silver articles were sent from this city to Moscow.

Ivan the Terrible, crowned *Czar* in 1547, took Kazan (*kah-zahn'*) and Astracan' from the Tartars ; Siberia, also, was conquered for him by the hetman (commander-in-chief) of the warlike Cossacks. In spite of the czar's tyranny, Russia grew in greatness ; foreigners were invited into the empire, commerce was encouraged, and the port of Archangel was founded on the White Sea. A printing-office was established at Moscow, and Ivan organized a standing army known as the Strel'itz Guard.

The son of Ivan was the last of the ancient line of Rurik. In 1613 the House of Romanof (*ro-mah'nof*) was elevated to the throne of Russia.

Youth of Peter the Great.—The first Romanof princes, engaged in wars with Poland, Sweden, and the Turks, gradually enlarged the boundaries of the empire. Feodor II., who died in 1682, left the crown to his half-brother Peter, then only ten years old, purposely excluding his own brother Ivan, who was weak-minded and unfit to rule. But at the instigation of Ivan's sister Sophia, the Strelitzes rose against this disposition of the crown, and a massacre took place in Moscow, which Peter and his mother escaped by taking refuge in a convent.

The difficulty was finally settled by the coronation of Ivan and Peter as joint emperors, with Sophia as regent. Not satisfied with the authority which she thus enjoyed, Sophia endeavored to destroy the usefulness and prospects of the young Peter by keeping him in ignorance and debasing his tastes. But the youthful monarch proved superior to her wiles. Instead of becoming indolent and profligate, he diligently applied himself to study, making many friends, among whom was his judicious adviser Le Fort.

At length Sophia, unable to prevent the growing power of her half-brother, planned his assassination. The plot was revealed to Peter, who, aided by his numerous adherents, prevailed over his intriguing sister and compelled her to retire to a convent. The imbecile Ivan now resigned his share of the sovereignty ; thus Peter I. became sole ruler of the Russian Empire (1689).

Peter's Efforts at Reform.—The first efforts of the young czar were directed toward the improvement of his half-barbarous subjects. In the face of national prejudices and the opposition of a powerful and superstitious clergy, he began his great work of reform.

The army first demanded his attention. He resolved to disband the Strelitzes, and organize a body of troops equipped and disciplined like other European soldiers. Under the direction of Le Fort a small force was raised and uniformed ; and Peter taught the Russians a lesson of subordination by drilling in the ranks himself as a common soldier. Another distinguished member of the corps was Menzikoff, a vender of cakes, whose ready wit had recommended him to the czar and who afterward rose to distinction in the imperial service. This little company was the germ of the future standing army of Russia.

About the same time Peter employed foreign shipwrights to build him vessels ; even in his boyhood he had conceived a love for navigation and delighted to paddle a little Dutch skiff in the river which flows through Moscow. He determined that his inland empire should possess sea-coast, and enjoy the advantages of intercourse with foreign countries. The Swedes ruled on the Baltic, the Turks on the Black Sea ; and it was at the expense of these neighbors that Peter proposed to provide himself with seaports. Sailing down the Don in 1696, he defeated the Ottoman fleet, and captured Az'of, the key to the Euxine.

Meanwhile the czar sent an ambassador to China, who is said to have travelled more than eighteen months before reaching the frontier. In the course of three years the embassy returned, after having established friendly relations between the two empires.

Peter next sent a number of Russian youth into western Europe, to be instructed in the arts and customs of civilized life. Former rulers had forbidden their subjects to leave the country, and the old Russian families held all foreigners in contempt. This arbitrary measure of the czar, together with the taxes he levied to enlarge his navy, occasioned discontent. His plan to unite the Volga and Don with canals was also denounced, as an impious attempt "to turn the streams one way which Providence had directed another." A powerful party opposed to Peter consequently grew up. A plot was formed for his assassination; but it was discovered and crushed with unsparing severity.

The Czar's Tour.—At last Peter determined to visit the principal countries of Europe himself, and become personally acquainted with their systems of government and the arts in which they excelled. Leaving his dominions in the hands of trustworthy deputies, he set out in the year 1697, disguised as an attendant in a splendid embassy, at the head of which were General Le Fort and Menzikoff. Hastening on in advance of his companions, he reached Holland, where he expected to learn the art of ship-building, refused the elegant palace which had been prepared for him in Amsterdam, and took up his abode in a hut among the dock-yards.

For seven weeks Peter performed the labor of a common shipwright; made his bed, cooked his own food, and received wages from his master. On one occasion he bought a pair of shoes with the money paid him, and was wont to point to them with pride as having been earned

by the sweat of his brow with hammer and anvil. The Duke of Marlborough came to visit him, and saw the absolute czar of Muscovy, as Peter was called, put his shoulder beneath a heavy beam at the ship-builder's order.



PETER IN THE DOCK-YARD.

From Holland Peter crossed into England, where he was hospitably entertained by the government. Here too he dwelt near the sea; and, to acquire skill in navigation, he often sailed a small vessel with Menzikoff and others of his suite on board. So forgetful were they of all the dignity proper to their station, that it was their custom, after the day's work was done, to amuse themselves with smoking and drinking in a common tavern.

Astonished at the number of lawyers in Westminster Hall, the czar remarked that he had but two in his whole empire, and thought of hanging one of these on his return.

Peter engaged many officers and scientific men to ac-

company him back to Russia. On leaving England, he took from his pocket a roll of brown paper and handed it to King William III. as a parting gift ; it contained a ruby worth ten thousand pounds sterling. In a yacht presented to him by his royal host he sailed for the continent, and there heard of a rebellion in Moscow which obliged him to return to Russia without delay.

Further Reforms.—It seems that the Strelitzes had revolted at the instigation of some disaffected Russians, who plotted the elevation of Sophia to the throne, but had been put down with great slaughter by one of Peter's generals. After his arrival in Moscow, the czar condemned to a frightful death many of the soldiers and conspirators. Some, we are told, were broken on the wheel, others buried alive, and others again were executed by Peter himself, who struck off their heads when in a state of intoxication. Such was the character of this remarkable man ; with all his talents, ambition, and energy, he possessed an ungovernable temper which often betrayed him into acts of atrocious cruelty.

The Strelitzes were disbanded, and new disciplined regiments supplied their place. Next a blow was aimed at the fashions of the people, who wore long beards and Tartar skirts. On these appendages a tax was laid, which, as many preferred the ancient costume, proved quite profitable to the government. Peter even went so far as to post barbers and tailors at the gates of the capital to cut the whiskers and skirts of those who entered. The calendar was changed ; and though the people complained that their sovereign was trying to alter the course of the sun, and the priests proved that the world was created in September, the Russian year was made to commence on January 1st. Arithmetic was introduced, and the old Tartar mode of counting by means of balls strung on wires was done away with. The Bible was translated into the Sla-

vonie tongue ; schools, hospitals, inns, and post-offices, were established. The condition of woman was elevated. Everywhere the work of improvement went on, in spite of the obstinate resistance of the people for whose good the czar was laboring.

As soon as these social reforms were effected, Peter desired to gain some territory on the Baltic, where he could build a new capital better adapted to commerce than Moscow. The country round the Gulf of Finland once belonged to Russia, but was now held by Sweden. Toward this power, unfriendly feelings were entertained by both Frederick IV. of Denmark and Augustus the Strong of Saxony, the successor of Sobieski on the throne of Poland. With the hope of wresting the coveted coast from Sweden, Peter joined these potentates in a war against the youthful monarch of that country, 1700.

The Scandinavian Kingdoms.—We must now take a retrospective view of the Scandinavian monarchies, which are about to engage on opposite sides in this conflict of the northern powers. After the death of Gustavus Adolphus (p. 312), his daughter Christina reigned in Sweden. During her minority, the great Oxenstiern administered affairs and zealously supported the Protestant cause in the Thirty Years' War. But when the queen assumed the government, she abandoned herself to unworthy pleasures, and Oxenstiern, one of the greatest statesmen in Europe, was ungratefully cast aside.

At last Christina tired of the sceptre, and in 1654 she abdicated in favor of her cousin, Charles Gustavus, determined to seek a life more suited to her tastes in foreign lands. Reaching a brook which separated the Swedish territory from Denmark, she exultingly jumped over it, exclaiming, "Now am I free, and out of Sweden, whither I hope never to return."

After this hostilities were carried on against the Poles

and Danes, and in the reign of Charles XI. (1660-1697) Sweden reached a high degree of prosperity.

The Alexander of the North.—On the death of Charles XI., the crown descended to his son, Charles XII., then only fifteen years of age. The young prince had conceived a passionate admiration for Alexander the Great. When told that Alexander lived to be but thirty-two, he said, "That is long enough, when a man has conquered kingdoms."

At first he took little interest in public affairs, devoting himself to physical exercises and the excitements of the chase. At the council of the nation, it was his custom to sit cross-legged on the table, listless and inattentive. But when he heard of the alliance of Denmark, Poland, and Russia against him, he suddenly shook off his lethargy and prepared to prosecute the war with unsparing vigor. Leaving Stockholm in 1700, he began a military career which has crowned him with the title of the Alexander of the North.

War of the Northern Powers.—Sailing for the Danish capital, Charles displayed his impetuous daring in the first engagement by leaping into the sea and landing in advance of his men on the enemy's soil. Copenhagen was bombarded, and in six weeks Frederick IV. gladly purchased peace.

The Swedish king now marched to the relief of Narva, which sixty thousand Russians were besieging. At the head of only nine thousand soldiers he killed or captured almost the whole of this army, composed as yet in a great measure of half-barbarous men, who were kept at their duty by fear of the knout,* and were unable to run away on account of their long skirts. When the czar

* A whip of cowhide thongs plaited with wire, formerly used for scourging criminals in Russia. One hundred and twenty lashes were considered equivalent to a sentence of death.

heard of this defeat, he coolly said, "The Swedes will have the advantage of us for a time, but in the end they will teach us to conquer them."

Charles next marched against the Poles and Saxons; in twelve months he had triumphed over all his foes, and was regarded as the first military leader in Europe. Bent upon dethroning Augustus if it cost him fifty years, he accomplished his object, but thus unwisely gave Peter time to recover from the reverse at Narva.

This energetic monarch, meanwhile, was melting church-bells into cannon and diligently training his soldiers to war. Nor did he neglect the arts of peace. Sheep were imported, cloth was made from their wool, and various factories were erected.

Peter finally gained possession of the land he desired on the Gulf of Finland, and in 1703 laid the foundations of the city of St. Petersburg. "Let him build his wooden houses," said Charles disdainfully, "we will soon come and burn them." Still with characteristic obstinacy the Swedish monarch lingered in Saxony, and dreamed of standing forth as "the Defender of the Evangelical Faith," overthrowing the papacy, and dictating the law to Europe. First, however, Russia must be his; and in 1708, rejecting with scorn the czar's offers of peace, Charles XII. told him they would treat at Moscow, and plunged with a magnificent army into the fastnesses of Russia.

Overthrow and Death of Charles.—The Swedish king had been promised the support of the Cossacks of the U'kraine by their hetman. This was Mazeppa, who, when a youth in Poland, had been bound by a jealous noble on the back of a wild horse and carried thus into Russia, where he rose to be the Cossack chief. The Cossacks, however, adhered to the cause of Peter; and the Russians retired before the Swedes, desolating the country.

Expected supplies failed to arrive; a terrible winter

set in ; yet Charles pressed on, sharing the hardships of the meanest soldier. At length, with his army reduced to less than twenty thousand, he laid siege to the town of Pultow'a, in May, 1709. Here, after a desperate struggle, he was defeated by Peter. Where the fire was hottest, there fought the rival sovereigns. Charles, who had been wounded, was carried to the field on a litter ; and when the litter was dashed to pieces by a cannon-ball, the soldiers raised him on their pikes. But his star of victory had set ; he was forced upon a horse and fled before the pursuing Russians, with a few hundred followers, to a Turkish town. As Peter had predicted, the Swedes had at last taught the Russians the art of war.

Charles remained for several years in Turkey, hoping still to lead an army of Janizaries to Moscow. The Porte yielded to his intrigues, and two hundred thousand Turks were sent against the czar. When the latter was reduced to the brink of ruin on the banks of the Pruth, his army was saved and a treaty adjusted with the enemy through the address of the empress Catharine. Catharine had risen from the humblest station, to be the wife of Peter the Great. In this critical hour she bribed the grand vizier with her jewels and such valuables as she could gather in the camp, thus saving her husband's crown and possibly his life. By the Treaty of the Pruth (1711), Azof was restored to the Turks.

The anger of Charles knew no bounds when he learned that Peter had escaped. He acted like a madman, and it was only with great difficulty, and in fact after using violence, that the Turks were able to get rid of their unwelcome guest. At last, to their delight, he set out for his own dominions.

Sweden, meantime, had been exhausted by the wars she was compelled to sustain. The impoverished people had besought their king to return from Turkey, but only

received the answer that he would send "one of his boots to govern them." When at last he arrived, it was to find the Swedish monarchy a mere wreck of its former greatness.

Still Charles XII. planned campaigns. While besieging a Norwegian town in 1718, he was struck down by a ball. Whether it came from the enemy's batteries, or was aimed by his own officers weary of endless war, is not known. Sweden soon after secured peace; but many of her provinces were ceded to Russia, and she declined into a second-rate power.

End of Peter's Career.—The czar continued to prosecute his public works, develop his country's resources, and elevate his people, with that untiring energy which was throughout the characteristic of his wonderful career. His last war was with Persia; it resulted in the acquisition of territories on the Caspian Sea. "Land is not what I want," he often said, "but water;" and at the end of his reign he was "lord of the sunny Caspian and of the icy Baltic." In 1724 he solemnly placed the crown of Russia on the head of the czarina Catharine; in the following year Peter the Great expired in her arms.

Catharine had great influence with the emperor, and often exercised it for good, soothing him in his fits of rage, and endeavoring to keep him from cruel and arbitrary acts. He consulted her on the most important affairs; yet her education is said to have been so deficient that she could not write her own name.

Sovereigns of Sweden and Russia.

SWEDEN.		RUSSIA. (<i>Romanof Family.</i>)	
Gustavus Adolphus, . . .	1611.	Michael Feodorovitz, . . .	1613.
Christina,	1632.	Alexis I.,	1645.
Charles X.,	1654.	Feodor II.,	1676.
Charles XI.,	1660.	Ivan V.,	1682-1689.
Charles XII.,	1697-1718.	Peter the Great., . . .	1682-1725.

CHAPTER LI.

*ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER IN
ENGLAND.—GEORGE I.—GEORGE II.*

(1714-1760.)

George I.—The Act of Succession passed by Parliament in 1701 settled the crown of England, in the event of Anne's death without children, on the princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and her heirs, if Protestants. Sophia was the grandchild of James I., his daughter Elizabeth and Frederick the Elector Palatine being her parents. She died, however, a few weeks before Queen Anne, and consequently in 1714 her son George, then fifty-four years of age, ascended the English throne.

George I. committed the management of affairs to the Whigs. The Duke of Marlborough was restored to the command of the army, and Sir Robert Walpole became prime minister. The Tory party inclined to the cause of Prince James the Pretender, and in 1715 revolts of the Jacobites, his adherents, broke out in Scotland and England. The prince came over from France to Scotland; but soon becoming disheartened he fled the country, and the insurrection was quickly put down.

The age of George I. was one of mad speculations. The most fatal of these was the South Sea Scheme, a plan by which the South Sea Company contracted to pay the debts of the state in return for certain privileges, and monopolies of trade with the gold-producing countries in the southern seas. Thousands invested their all in South Sea stock, which rose to ten times its original value. Suddenly the bubble burst, and multitudes found themselves beggars. The public credit was nearly ruined; but Walpole, who had vainly opposed this infamous scheme, saved the country from bankruptcy.

Numerous other fraudulent projects were contemporary with the South Sea Bubble. One company set forth in its prospectus that it would "carry on an undertaking, nobody to know what it is." In five hours the projector had duped London out of nearly two thousand pounds sterling, with which he escaped across the Channel.

George I., a true son of Fatherland in all his tastes and affections, was unable to speak the English language; as a monarch he was disposed to be fair and moderate; as a man, he was cold, selfish, and profligate—a bad father and a brutal husband.

George II.—The news of the death of George I. (1727) was conveyed by Sir Robert Walpole in person to his son, who, instead of manifesting any filial sorrow, received the intelligence with a volley of oaths at being wakened from his afternoon slumbers. Succeeding to the crown with the title of George II., this prince laid aside the dislike he had long entertained for the shrewd minister of his father, and, notwithstanding a determined opposition, Walpole and his party continued in power.

The new king, like his father, was partial to Hanover, and often visited Germany. His enemies on one occasion signified their displeasure at his prolonged absence from England, by posting on the palace-gate a placard inscribed as follows: "Lost or strayed from this house, a man who has left a wife and six children on the parish. Any person giving intelligence of his whereabouts will receive four shillings and sixpence: no one judges him deserving of a *crown*" [five shillings].

A violent political conflict between the opposite factions, now distinguished as the parties of the Court and the Country, agitated the first fourteen years of this reign. In order to maintain his waning influence, Walpole stooped to unscrupulous corruption and bought votes with the public money. His peaceful policy was distasteful to

many, who abused him as "the cur of England and the spaniel of France."

The death of the queen-consort Caroline, a woman of rare literary and political ability, deprived Walpole in 1737 of one of his best supporters. Two years later, on account of outrages committed on English commerce, he was obliged by the popular voice to declare war against Spain. "They may ring their bells now," said the minister, when the people thus expressed their rejoicings, "but they will soon wring their hands." His prediction was shortly fulfilled; for, though the British fleet was at first victorious, the war on the whole was ill conducted. England, moreover, was drawn into a great continental struggle, the particulars of which will be related hereafter.

In 1742 Walpole resigned. This, however, did not interfere with the prosperity of the country. Trade and manufactures received a wonderful impulse by the application of machinery to the arts. Before the death of the king in 1760, the fleet of England rode supreme on the sea, while her armies had extended her limits in the New World and laid the foundations of an empire in India. Hallam designates this reign as "the most prosperous period England had ever known."

It was at this time of civil prosperity, but a time also of general indifference to religion, that Methodism took its rise. A great revival was excited throughout Britain, especially among the poorer classes, by the eloquent preaching of its founders, Wesley and Whitefield (*whit'-field*). In America, as well as in the mother-country, the new tenets were received with favor, and the Methodists rapidly grew to be a large and important body.

In 1752 an act was passed, adopting the Gregorian Calendar. The error under the Julian Calendar having become eleven days, the third of September was reckoned as the fourteenth.

King George II., described as a dull little man of low tastes, lived a life of self-indulgence to the very last. Gaming was the passion of his court ; he who could not play cards was ridiculed as ill-bred. "Talk not to me about books," said the old Duchess of Marlborough, "the only books I know are men and cards." Even the queen was compelled to study in secret, so furious did the king become at the sight of any kind of reading-matter.

Scotch Rebellion of 1745.—The most prominent event of the reign of George II. was the invasion of Great Britain by Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, in 1745. Supplying himself with arms in France, this adventurous prince embarked for Scotland, where he quickly raised a small army of Highlanders. With these he gave battle to the English troops at Preston Pans. Before the engagement began, the prince waved his naked sword, crying to his men, "My friends, I have thrown away the scabbard!" In four minutes the English were put to flight ; and, had the Pretender availed himself of this victory to advance directly upon London, he might perhaps have regained the crown of his grandfather (James II.).

But not till the time for action was past did he cross the border and march toward the capital. Even then the prize seemed almost within his grasp, when the discontents of his Highland chieftains compelled him to retrace his steps. The English gave pursuit, and on Culloden Moor (see Map, p. 202) in 1746 a decisive battle took place. The bayonets of the king's men proved more than a match for the Highland claymores, and in less than thirty minutes the Stuart cause was ruined forever.

After the battle of Culloden, in retaliation for this uprising, the Highlands were desolated far and wide by the English commander, the Duke of Cumberland, long remembered among the clans as "the bloody butcher." A reward of £30,000 was offered for the Pretender, and he

was hotly pursued through Scotland. He was probably saved through the devotion of the heroic Flora McDonald. While the hunt was at its height, she succeeded in conducting the young prince, disguised as her female attendant, through the midst of enemies thirsting for his life, and after a variety of romantic adventures brought him to a point whence he was enabled to escape to France.

Events in the New World.—During the reign of George II., settlements were made in the delightful region west of the Savannah by Oglethorpe, who called his new colony *Georgia* in honor of the king.

In King George's War (1744-'48), a force from Massachusetts, led by General Pepperell, reduced the strong fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton (*Brit't'n*) Island. This important post the English government shortly afterward restored to France.

In 1749 the Ohio Company obtained a grant of five hundred thousand acres on the Ohio River, with the intention of settling the region west of the Alleghanies. But the French also claimed this country, established themselves in north-western Pennsylvania, and apprised the commissioner sent to remonstrate with them of their intention to destroy all English posts on the Ohio. The person selected for this important mission was George Washington, then twenty-one years of age, already distinguished for his discretion and bravery.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.—The report of their messenger roused the English colonists to action, and they commenced building a fort where Pittsburg now stands. Before it was finished, however, the French took it; they completed the work, and called the fortress Duquesne. In 1755 General Braddock, who had been sent to aid the colonists with an army of regulars, marched against this post. Scorning advice, he fell into an ambuscade, and, had it not been for Washington and his Virginia Rangers, the

whole British force must have been destroyed. Washington seemed to bear a charmed life. Again and again was he fired at by hostile Indians without effect. He was saved for greater deeds.

Another campaign, in the vicinity of Lake George (named after the British king), was no less disastrous to the English arms. Fort William Henry, on the lake, invested by a large army of French and Indians under Montcalm, was defended by its commander till his ammunition gave out, and then surrendered on the promise of a safe escort for the garrison to an adjoining post. The French, however, were unable to restrain their savage allies, and many of the English were massacred after the capitulation. At the close of 1757, the French possessions in America exceeded those of England as twenty to one.

In subsequent operations the British were more successful. Washington raised his country's flag on the ruins of Fort Duquesne, the name of which was changed to Pittsburg, in honor of the English statesman Pitt, the firm friend of the American people. The conquest of Canada was begun by the gallant Wolfe, who fell before Quebec at the moment of victory. Montcalm, the French commander, whose genius had contributed greatly to the extension of the French dominions in the New World, received a mortal wound in the same battle. By the Treaty of Paris (1763), Canada was given up to the English, and the Mississippi was recognized as the general boundary of their possessions on the west.

English Literature.—The lustre which the distinguished writers of Queen Anne's reign shed upon English literature remains undimmed in this succeeding period. Samuel Johnson, the critic, moralist, and first great lexicographer of England, was recognized as the literary oracle of the age. Fiction became popular through the sentimental pen of Richardson, and the lively pictures of Fielding,

even marred as they are by coarseness. Hume, Gibbon, and Robertson, a trio of historians of high repute in their own day, are still recognized as standards.

Of poets there were many, though none rank with the great Shakespeare and Milton. Oliver Goldsmith, with his simple verse and pleasant humor, is a universal favorite; Akenside's "Pleasures of the Imagination" displays a masterly command of language; Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard" is the faultless work of a consummate artist; Thomson's "Seasons" abounds in lifelike views of external nature; while Collins, though he wrote little, touches the heart with his exquisite pathos.

During this century were published Burke's "Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful," Kames's "Elements of Criticism," Blair's "Lectures on Rhetoric," and Paley's "Evidences of Christianity." Before its close, the Christian poet Cowper became a favorite in every household by his simplicity, good sense, originality, and earnest moral tone. Concentrated passion, thrilling tenderness, and genial humor, are the characteristics of Scotland's peasant bard, the ploughman Burns.

Hogarth and Reynolds, eminent English painters, and Handel, the composer of noble oratorios, also flourished in this age.

French and Indian War: Chief Events.

Braddock's defeat, July 9, 1755. The French general Dieskau (*dees'-kōw*) defeated at Lake George by colonial troops under Johnson, September 8, 1755. New Brunswick conquered by the British, 1755. The French under Montcalm capture Fort Oswego in 1756—Fort William Henry, on Lake George, in August, 1757. Louisburg, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward Island, taken by the British, 1758. French compelled to evacuate Fort Duquesne by Washington, 1758. Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by the English, 1759. Quebec captured by the English, September, 1759. All Canada and Detroit surrendered to the English, 1760.

CHAPTER LII.

REIGN OF LOUIS XV. OF FRANCE.

(1715-1774.)

Regency of the Duke of Orleans.—Louis XIV. of France, on his death-bed, summoned to his side the heir to the crown, his great-grandson, a boy five years of age, and bade him study the interests of the people and live in peace with the surrounding nations.

During the minority of this prince, Louis XV., the government was conducted by his kinsman, Philip of Orleans, as regent. An unprincipled man, he resorted to the most iniquitous measures to discharge the immense national debt. The coinage was debased; many claims were cancelled; and creditors were thrown into prison and compelled to pay heavily for their release. Still the state appeared to be on the brink of ruin, when Law, a Scotch financier, proposed to relieve the public distress by issuing a paper currency, having as the basis of its credit certain monopolies of trade and the yield of imaginary mines in Louisiana—the name of the vast region owned by France in the New World on the Mississippi River.

Law's plan, known as the Mississippi Scheme, was eagerly adopted by the regent; and the deluded people, with feverish excitement, speculated in Mississippi shares. Crowds were attracted to Paris, and clerks could scarcely be found in sufficient numbers to transact the company's business. But a few months sufficed to prick the bubble. A crash came; thousands were ruined, and the country received a shock from which it did not recover for years.

Reign of Profligacy.—In 1723 the king was declared of age; his preceptor and religious guide, Cardinal Fleury, became prime minister. Fleury favored peace, but could not prevent France from becoming entangled in difficulties

with England, and in wars with Austria and Prussia, which will be treated in the following chapter.

Louis XV. soon yielded to the temptations that surrounded him, and plunged into the most shameful profligacy. Since the days of the Roman emperors, no age had seen such open and disgusting licentiousness. A succession of depraved favorites governed the king, and through him the nation; the most notorious of these was the Marchioness de Pom'padour, who for twenty years directed the affairs of the kingdom.

Louis sunk deeper and deeper in vice. The death of his son, and of his wife, produced but a short-lived repentance. Parisian society throughout, while it was showy and brilliant, was at the same time frivolous, impure, and irreligious. A general spirit of scepticism prevailed, and characterized the literature of the day, of which the French Encyclopædia was a type, and Voltaire, an infidel though the greatest wit in Europe, the leading ornament.

The king was carried off in the midst of his excesses (1774). He left France overburdened with debt and humbled by the arms of her enemies.

Suppression of the Jesuits.—An important event of the reign of Louis XV. was the expulsion of the Jesuits from France (1764). In a controversy between them and the Jansenists, followers of the reformer Jansen, the king at first sided with the Jesuits. But the latter defied Pompadour, and she exerted herself to effect their downfall. Yielding at last to her influence and the popular clamor, the king suppressed the order.

About the same time the Jesuits were banished from Spain and Portugal. Pope Clement XIV. was prevailed upon by the Bourbon courts to suppress the order (1773), and was called in consequence the Protestant Pope. It was restored by Pope Pius VII. in the beginning of the next century.

Leading Literary Men.

Voltaire, author of the French epic, "The Henriade," histories, and tragedies. Diderot (*dede-ro'*) and D'Alembert (*dah-lon^d-bare'*), editors of the French Encyclopædia, hostile to social order and religion. Montesquieu (*mon-tes-ku'*), author of "The Spirit of Laws," one of the most remarkable books of the age. Rousseau (*roo-so'*), a philosophic writer; chief work, "The Social Contract." Buffon, an eminent naturalist, author of several valuable volumes on subjects connected with natural history. Le Sage (*leh sahzh*), whose "Gil Blas" (*zheel blahs*) was one of the most popular fictions ever written.

 CHAPTER LIII.

PRUSSIA.—EUROPEAN WARS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Early History of Prussia.—Prussia was so called from the Borus'si, an ancient Lithua'nian tribe that dwelt along the southern coast of the Baltic, between the Vistula and the Niemen (*ne'men*). Three centuries before Christ the Phœnicians sailed hither in search of amber, and found the people as savage as the wolves that howled through their forests.

A rude civilization gradually dawned on these northern wilds, but long after the Christian era the inhabitants were still pagans. Ad'albert, a zealous bishop, attempted their conversion in the tenth century, but was murdered by the priests, falling, according to the old legend, with his arms outstretched in the form of a crucifix. Subsequent missionaries proved more successful.

In the course of time Prussia became a dependency of Poland, and in the early part of the seventeenth century it was united with the electorate of Brandenburg, a territory lying farther west. Brandenburg was in the hands of the

Ho'henzol'lern family, which traced back its origin to the time of Charlemagne ; and around this electorate, as a nucleus, the present kingdom of Prussia has grown up.

The Great Elector.—During the Thirty Years' War, Prussia and Brandenburg suffered all the horrors of famine and pestilence. But the Great Elector, Frederick William (1640–1688), restored prosperity to his desolate country, enlarged his dominions by conquest, and raised Brandenburg to an important position among the European states.

Founding of the Kingdom.—The son of the Great Elector, in consideration of his promising to assist the emperor Leopold I. in the War of the Spanish Succession, received from the latter the title of “King of Prussia.” Early in 1701, in Kō'nigsberg, then the capital, the elector assumed the crown. The coronation ceremonies were magnificent ; the streets were hung with gorgeous tapestries, and many of them richly carpeted, to receive the lords and ladies who gathered to greet the elector Frederick III. as Frederick I. the king. In memory of this event, the Order of the Black Eagle was established.

Prussia faithfully kept her promise to the emperor, and her soldiers shared with Eugene and Marlborough the glory of their great victories.

The reign of Frederick I. was noted for the founding of the Ber'lin Academy, under the philosopher Leibnitz (*libe'nits*), and the cultivation of the arts and sciences, encouraged chiefly by the queen.

Frederick William I.—On the death of Frederick I. in 1713, his son Frederick William ascended the throne. Many anecdotes are related of his unamiable disposition, even in childhood. When only five years old, he was taken to Hanover, to visit his uncle the elector, and while there severely beat his cousin (a boy much older than himself), afterward George II. of England. On another occasion, his governess having set him a task that he re-

solved not to perform, he let himself out of a high castle-window, and hung by his hands to the sill till she consented to revoke the order.

On receiving the crown, Frederick William strove by the strictest economy to repair the evils occasioned by his father's extravagance. Luxury was banished from the palace; servants were dismissed; and all but thirty of the thousand saddle-horses in the royal stables were sold. Idleness, even for a moment, was nowhere tolerated. When the king walked out, woe to the loiterer, whether noble or commoner, that came within reach of his cane! The old apple-women had to knit at their stalls; and even well-dressed ladies, quietly promenading, were saluted with kicks and ordered 'home to their brats.'

But in one respect Frederick William I. was himself extravagant. At an enormous expense he formed a guard of twenty-four hundred soldiers, composed of the tallest men he could purchase or kidnap throughout the world, ranging from six to eight feet in height. On one occasion, the German ambassador, a man of stalwart proportions, was seized by his recruiting officers, but released with humble apologies as soon as their mistake was discovered.—Another institution of this king was his "Tobacco Parliament," at which in the evening he met his ministers and generals, each furnished with a pipe, and discussed with them informally the affairs of state.

In domestic life Frederick William was a tyrant; he cudgelled his son, struck and kicked his daughter, and sometimes provided such poor fare that the children rose hungry from the table. If they complained, the king in his fury threw plates at their heads. After helping himself and his guests, he would frequently spit into the dish, to prevent his family from eating. "His palace," says Macaulay, "was hell, and he the most execrable of fiends." Driven to desperation by this cruel treatment, the crown-

prince finally attempted to flee from the country, but was overtaken and brought back. The king's furious charges of cowardice and desertion were met with spirited replies, which so enraged the tyrant that he was with difficulty restrained from plunging his sword into his son's bosom.

With all this brutality was mingled shrewdness in the management of public affairs ; and, when Frederick William I. died in 1740, Prussia was in a most flourishing condition, with a full treasury and a formidable army of the best-disciplined soldiers in Europe.

Frederick II., the Great, the prince just spoken of, succeeded, and lost no time in using his treasures and army to enlarge his dominions and elevate Prussia to the rank of a first-rate power. His energy and genius enabled him to withstand united Europe ; and through a wonderful succession of splendid victories and crushing disasters he merited the title which history has bestowed upon him—the Great.

War of the Austrian Succession (1740–1748).—In 1740 (the very year of Frederick's succession) died the emperor Charles VI. of Germany, the last prince of the direct line of Hapsburg. He had endeavored to secure the succession to his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa (*te-re'sä*), married to Francis of Lorraine' ; and the great European powers pledged themselves to maintain the Pragmatic Sanction, or solemn agreement which insured to her the crown. But, as the old Eugene said, "a hundred thousand men would have guaranteed it better than a hundred thousand treaties."

Hardly was the emperor buried when numerous claimants arose for the dominions of his young and beautiful daughter. Frederick II., of Prussia, suddenly invaded Silesia (*sĭ-le'she-ä*) ; Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, asserted his right to the Austrian states, and France took up arms to support him in his efforts to obtain the impe-

rial dignity. Silesia was quickly conquered by the ambitious Prussian. The Austrian dominions were overrun by French, Saxon, and Bavarian troops ; and Charles Albert was finally elected emperor of Germany.

In her distress, Maria Theresa appealed to the Hungarian diet. Moved by her tears and promises, the Hun-



MARIA THERESA AND HER MINISTER OF STATE.

garians drew their sabres and shouted, "Life and blood for our queen and kingdom !" The whole country rose in arms. A force of wild horsemen swept into Bavaria, drove back the enemy, and on the very day when the imperial crown was placed on the head of Charles Albert the Austrian army entered his capital, Munich (*mu'nik*).

Meanwhile the empress had found an active ally in the king of England, the second of the Georges. At Dettingen, in Bavaria, he overthrew the French (1743). It is told of him that when his horse became frightened and turned from the fray, the little king threw himself to the ground, and led his men on foot, exclaiming, "Now I know I shall not run away." Never since has a British sovereign appeared at the head of his troops in battle.

Two years later, Louis XV. and his dauphin braved the dangers of the field in the bloody fight at Fontenoy', where Saxe, a gallant marshal of France, inflicted a severe loss on the allies. About this time the emperor died, and in his stead Maria Theresa's consort was raised to the imperial throne, becoming Francis I. of Germany. Three years after (1748), the War of the Austrian Succession was terminated by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Silesia remained in the hands of Prussia.

Interval of Peace.—On the cessation of hostilities, Frederick the Great gave all his energies to the strengthening of his kingdom, and prepared an efficient army to defend, if need be, his recent conquest. And need was ; for the high-spirited Maria Theresa, spoiled of Silesia, took advantage of this period of peace to form a powerful league against the robber—none the less a robber because he wore a diadem.

Russia declared for the German empress. This country, on the death of Peter the Great, had passed into the hands of his wife Catharine I., who reigned for two years with Men'zikoff as her minister. Peter II., her successor, the beloved prince of the Russians, who declared that he would "rule in the fear of God, and like Vespasian suffer no man to go sorrowful away," died at an early age. Next came the profligate Anna, famous for her palace of ice on the Ne'va ; and in 1741 Elizabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great, ascended the throne of the czars.

This dissolute empress, incensed at the sarcasm of the witty Frederick, joined the coalition against him ; and for the first time Russia interfered as a great power in the affairs of western Europe.

France, Sweden, and Saxony, also joined the alliance ; while Frederick, penetrating the designs of his jealous neighbors, succeeded in concluding a treaty with the British king.

While Europe was arming, an earthquake shook her western shores. The shock was felt from Africa to England. Lisbon was destroyed, thirty thousand of her inhabitants being swallowed up or crushed beneath her crumbling walls.

Seven Years' War (1756-1763).—Resolved to anticipate his enemies, and undismayed by their number, Frederick the Great in 1756 suddenly marched into Saxony, and struck the first blow in the Seven Years' War. His victories of Rossbach (*ross'bahk*) over the French, Leuthen (*loi'ten*) over the Austrians, and Zorn'dorf (see Map, p. 386) over the Russians, astonished the world. Friend and foe alike adorned their walls with pictures of one who had come to be regarded as the greatest general of modern times.

But the tide turned ; reverses followed. Prussia was well-nigh exhausted of men and resources. England deserted her in her extremity ; and Frederick, left to battle with Europe single-handed, and with the dismemberment of his kingdom staring him in the face, is said in his desperation for a time to have carried poison in his pocket, that he might not survive his fatherland.

In this critical state of affairs, the Russian empress died. Her successor, Peter III., whose admiration of Frederick amounted almost to worship, at once abandoned Austria, and sent an army to re-enforce the Prussian king. "Together," he was heard to say, "we will conquer the

universe." Peter, however, was shortly after assassinated; and his wife and successor, Catharine II., who had shared in the crime, recalled the Russian troops and remained neutral during the rest of the struggle.

Notwithstanding, victory returned to the Prussian standards. Germany, devastated and impoverished, clamored for peace; and Maria Theresa was obliged to listen to the demands of her people and resign all hope of recovering Silesia.

Prussia after the Seven Years' War.—Prussia, thus saved from the dangers which had threatened its very existence, gradually recovered from the ravages of the Seven Years' War under the vigorous administration of "good old Fritz," who worked twenty hours out of the twenty-four for the good of his people. The strictest economy was practised even in the royal household. The king was notorious for his snuff-colored vest and shabby coat, and is said to have been buried in a shirt of his valet's, because his own wardrobe could not furnish one decent enough for the purpose.

One secret of Frederick's military success was his rigid discipline. Disobedience he never forgave. It is related that one evening intending to move upon the enemy, who were near at hand, he ordered all lights to be extinguished throughout the camp by eight o'clock. Going out at that hour to see for himself whether the order was obeyed, he espied a solitary light, and entering the tent in which it glimmered found an officer just finishing a letter to his wife. "Mercy! mercy, your majesty!" cried the terrified captain, throwing himself on his knees. "Nay," replied the king, "since you are writing, write one line more. Tell your wife that by noon to-morrow you will be a dead man." The letter was sent, and at the appointed hour the disobedient officer was executed.

This great king died in 1786. He was succeeded by

his nephew, Frederick William II., who abandoned himself to profligacy and squandered the treasures of the kingdom.

Austria under Joseph II.—Austria, meanwhile, was recovering its prosperity. When Francis I. died in 1765, his son Joseph II. was elected emperor ; but Maria Theresa administered the government till her death. Joseph was noted for his benevolence, and introduced various innovations which for the most part had in view the elevation of his people. He abolished serfdom, allowed freedom of worship, improved the condition of the Jews, encouraged industry and education, and established the liberty of the press. But these reforms met with violent opposition in certain quarters, and some of them were subsequently abrogated.

Maria Theresa, deservedly ranked among Austria's most illustrious sovereigns, died in 1780 ; and in 1790 Joseph followed her, leaving the imperial throne to his brother Leopold II.

Russia under Catharine II., despite the impurity of her private character, grew and prospered. The day which dawned under Peter the Great, in Catharine's magnificent reign attained its noontide splendor. Illustrious scholars and statesmen shone at her court, while Potem'kin and Suwarrow (*soo-war'ro*) led her armies to victory. Suwarrow's dispatch to the empress, announcing one of his triumphs over the Turks, became famous by its terseness—"Haughty Ismail (*is-mah-eel'*) is at your feet."

The aim of Catharine was to expel the Ottomans from Europe and found a new Byzantine Empire of her own. She died without realizing her hopes, but not till she had acquired vast territories at the expense of the Turks and established her supremacy on the Black Sea.

In November, 1796, Catharine was struck with apoplexy. Her son Paul was proclaimed in her stead. One of his first acts was to place the remains of his murdered

father beside those of the guilty Catharine, and over both coffins the inscription, "Divided in life, united in death."

Partition of Poland.—On the death of the Saxon elector Augustus the Strong (1733), of whom a native historian said "he brought peace to Poland, but it was the peace of the tomb," the Polish nation acknowledged Stan'islas Leszinski (*les-tsin'ske*) as king. But a Russian army drove him from the country, and secured the succession to Augustus II. of Saxony. After his weak reign, Poniatowski (*po-ne-ah-tov'ske*), the last of Poland's kings, ascended the throne (1764). Despite his labors for his country's good, the terrible consequences of anarchy and dissension were visited upon unhappy Poland. Frederick the Great had long coveted a portion of her territory; and in 1772 a treaty was concluded by which nearly one-third of Poland was divided between himself, Joseph of Austria, and Catharine II. The Polish diet was overawed and compelled to sanction the dismemberment. Maria Theresa for a time protested against this unholy partition.

An attempt (1791) on the part of the Poles and their king to throw off the constitution imposed on them by the partitioning powers, and substitute a new one more consistent with the ancient forms, led to an invasion of the country by Russia in the following year. Then private quarrels were forgotten, and the nation rose as one man in defence of its liberties. Miracles of valor were performed by Prince Poniatowski, nephew of the king, and the gallant Kosciusko (*kos-se-us'ko*); but their efforts were unavailing, and another third of Poland was divided between Prussia and Russia.

A last effort was made for the independence of Poland in 1794, by the heroic Kosciusko. After a number of bloody conflicts, in which every Pole showed himself a hero, Warsaw capitulated. Kosciusko, who in the last battle had fallen from his horse covered with wounds,

uttering the prophetic words, "The end of Poland," languished in a Russian prison till the death of Catharine.

Russia and Prussia now proceeded to a third partition of what remained of Poland (1795), but Austria would not consent to the division unless she also received a share. Accordingly, Cracow (*kra'ko*) and the surrounding terri-



tory were appropriated to her; Warsaw and the country as far as the Niemen fell to Prussia; and Russia, as before, obtained the lion's share. Thus was dismembered the country of the brave Poles, after an existence of nearly a thousand years. No more infamous act is recorded in history. Its name was effaced from the list of states; and its people, deprived of all but honor and the thirst for re-

venge, took for their motto, "All freemen are brothers," and plunged into that conflict with despotism which, as we shall see, presently shook Europe to its foundation.

When Kosciusko was released by the emperor Paul, the latter, to make amends for the injuries inflicted by his mother Catharine, loaded him with marks of favor, even presenting him his own sword. But the high-spirited Pole refused it, saying, "I have no need of a sword; I have no country to defend."

German and Russian Literature.—During the eighteenth century, German literature made great advances. Among the writers who left their impress on the age, were Les'sing, the dramatist and critic; Klop'stock, author of the grand German epic, "The Messiah;" Wieland (*we'-land*), the graceful poet; Her'der, who exercised an important influence on literature and philosophy, and of whom Richter, himself a German writer of no mean repute, said, "Herder is no poet, but himself a poem;" Kant, the profound metaphysician; and Göthe (*gö'teh*) and Schiller (*shil'ler*), the most illustrious names in German literature, ranking among the greatest poets of any age or country.

Russian literature may be said to have been founded in the eighteenth century. Peter the Great effected an intellectual revolution by abolishing the old Slav'ic language as the medium of official communication, and elevating the Russian as spoken by the people to the dignity of a written tongue. The first book in the Russian language was printed in 1699, and the first newspaper in 1704. Elizabeth and Catharine II. carried on the work which Peter had begun. Elizabeth founded the University of Moscow and the Academy at St. Petersburg; and Catharine was alluded to by Voltaire in the words, "Light comes now from the North." Lomonosof (*lom-o-no'sof*) has been called "the father of Russian poetry."

In Poland, also, literature and art flourished.

Contemporary Sovereigns, etc.

FREDERICK I., 1701-1713.	{	Anne, queen of England. Philip V., of Spain. War of the Spanish Succession (1701-'14).
FREDERICK WILLIAM I., 1713-1740.	{	George I. and II., of England. Louis XV., of France. Frederick Augustus, of Poland. Peter the Great, of Russia; Catharine I., Peter II., Anna. War of the Polish Succession.
FREDERICK II., THE GREAT, 1740-1786.	{	War of the Austrian Succession. Seven Years' War. George III., of England. Elizabeth, Peter III., Catharine II., of Russia. Ali Bey (<i>ah'le ba</i>), in Egypt. Pope Clement XIV. (Ganganelli), a reformer. War of the American Revolution. Washington; Franklin; Voltaire; Dr. Johnson.
FREDERICK WILLIAM II., 1786-1797.	{	George III., of England. Pius VI., pope. French Revolution. Final dismemberment of Poland.



CHAPTER LIV.

*ACCESSION OF GEORGE III. IN ENGLAND.—
AMERICAN REVOLUTION.*

William Pitt.—When George III. ascended the English throne in 1760, William Pitt, the Great Commoner, one of the ablest statesmen that his country ever produced, was at the height of his power. He was adored by the people as the inflexible foe of every unconstitutional measure, and spoke with such eloquence that he has been ranked among the first orators of all time. He made England the foremost country in the world.

Pitt advocated the alliance with Frederick the Great, on the ground that "the French colonies in America were to be conquered through Germany." When the Family

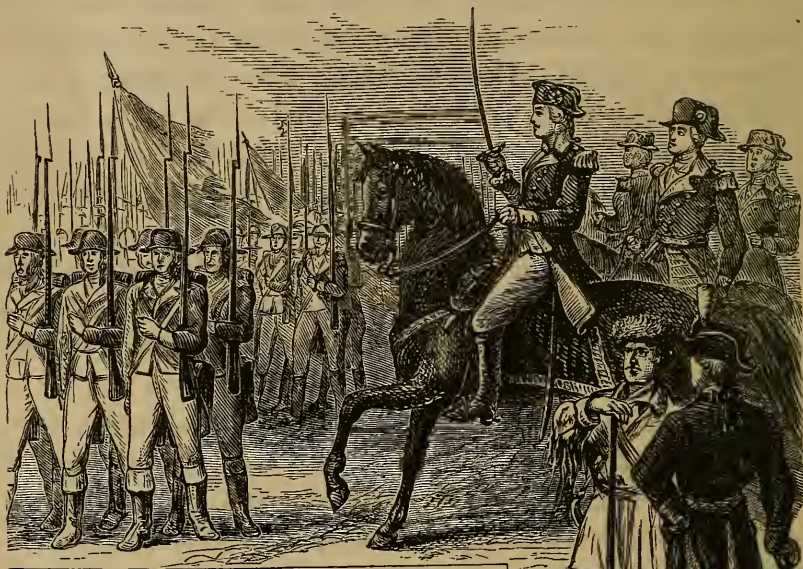
Compact was formed between the Bourbon courts of France and Spain, he urged immediate war with the latter, but was overruled and resigned. In France it was remarked that Pitt's fall was worth two victories. War with Spain, however, followed ; and, in the midst of brilliant successes on the part of England, the Treaty of Paris was signed (1763).

Causes of the American Revolution.—On the ground that the recent French and Indian War had been carried on for the protection of the American colonies, the English government resolved that the latter should share the expenses incurred. But the Americans remembered that much of their success was due to their own brave troops, and claimed that Parliament had no right to tax them unless they were represented in that body. Notwithstanding, in 1765 the Stamp Act was passed, requiring stamps of different values to be affixed to all deeds, notes, newspapers, etc. Upon this the indignation of the colonies blazed forth, and resistance was determined upon ; but the obnoxious act was repealed in 1766.

Yet harmony was not restored, for other taxes were imposed, and British regiments were sent from England to enforce the submission of the people. The king regarded the Americans as “rebels,” and Pitt their champion, now Earl of Chatham, as “a trumpet of sedition.” “Four regiments,” wrote George, “will bring them to their senses ; they will only be lions while we are lambs.” Vainly Chatham strove to avert the conflict ; his advice was rejected, and in 1775 the eight years' war of the American Revolution began.

The Revolutionary War.—The American coast from Maine to Georgia was at this time occupied by thirteen colonies, containing a people used to the hardships of the wilderness, animated by an uncompromising love of freedom, and determined on maintaining at all hazards their

rights as British subjects. The English troops were gathered in Boston ; and an attempt on their part to destroy the stores which the colonists were known to have collected at Concord, eighteen miles from the city, led to the shedding of the first blood in the Revolution, at Lexington, April 19, 1775. The news of the manly stand made by the patriots of Massachusetts in this battle was the signal for a general uprising, and before long twenty thousand men were threatening the British in Boston.



In May more royal troops arrived from England. General Howe commanded them, and learned at Bunker Hill (June 17, 1775), which the Americans seized in the night in anticipation of a similar movement on the part of the British, and which they would have held in spite of the most gallant charges of the enemy had not their ammunition failed, that considerably more than four regiments would



WASHINGTON ASSUMING
COMMAND.

be needed to reduce a nation of freemen to submission. Two days before the battle of Bunker Hill, the chief command of the American army had been conferred, by the Continental Congress assembled in Philadelphia, on George Washington, of Virginia, the hero of Braddock's campaign. On the 3d of July, 1775, he assumed command at Cambridge.

An unsuccessful attack on Quebec by the Americans during the winter was followed by movements of Washington in the spring which caused the British to evacuate Boston, and the defeat of an expedition led by General Clinton against Charleston (June, 1776). Up to this time the colonies had desired nothing more than a redress of grievances ; there had been little thought of separation from the mother-country. But now Congress, seeing its petitions treated with silent contempt, and the British government preparing more vigorously than ever and even hiring German soldiers for the war, gave up all hope of reconciliation. On the 4th of July, 1776, independence was declared, and the Thirteen Colonies became the United States of America.

After a short stay at Halifax, whither they had sailed from Boston, the British army, strongly re-enforced, descended on New York. Washington, hampered by the want of men, ammunition, and stores, could make no efficient defence, and after suffering a nearly fatal defeat on Long Island left New York to the enemy, withdrew his army to the north, succeeded in crossing the Hudson into New Jersey, traversed that state in hot haste, and found safety only by placing the Delaware between himself and the pursuing British. A well-planned surprise of a Hessian detachment at Trenton on December 26th, followed by a successful engagement at Princeton, served to encourage the desponding Americans ; and during the winter Washington managed to recover a great part of New Jersey.

About this time Lafayette, a young French marquis, ever the generous friend of freedom, appeared in America, and offered his sword to the infant republic.

The plans of the British for the summer of 1777 were directed against the North. Burgoyne was to sweep, with a strong force of British and Indians from Canada, down Lake Champlain and the valley of the Hudson, till he effected a junction with Howe, garrisoning important posts on the way, in order to cut off Washington's communication with the Eastern States. Howe, meantime, was to keep Washington busy. Burgoyne's expedition resulted in utter failure ; he was hemmed in, and after two severe battles obliged to surrender his entire force at Saratoga (October 17, 1777).

Howe, after vainly manœuvring for some time to bring Washington to an engagement for which he felt himself unprepared, threatened Philadelphia. Unwilling to lose that important city without a blow in its defence, Washington gave battle to the enemy at Brandywine (September 11, 1777), and was defeated. Philadelphia was taken, and Washington withdrew his men to spend a terrible winter, cold, sick, and disheartened, at Valley Forge.

Before the declaration of independence, commissioners had been sent to France, the traditional enemy of England, to ask aid for the struggling colonies. Among these was Benjamin Franklin, a candle-maker in his youth, a great philosopher in his maturer years, who had astonished the *savants* of Europe with the grand discovery that lightning and electricity are identical. A thrill of joy ran through America when it was announced that France had consented to send assistance to the cause of freedom.

We cannot give all the details of the next two years. Suffice it to say, that the British evacuated Philadelphia, and fell back on New York—Washington deviating from his Fabian policy to give them battle at Mon-

mouth on the way, but without decisive results : That an attempt to recover Savannah by a combined force of Americans and French was repulsed with great loss : That Paul Jones encircled the American flag with a halo of glory by several wonderful naval victories : That the capture of Charleston, South Carolina, by the British (May 12, 1780) was followed, in spite of a brilliant partisan warfare, by the conquest of most of Carolina ; and, That the patriot cause came near being ruined in September, 1780, by the treachery of Benedict Arnold and the betrayal of the strong fortress of West Point into the hands of Clinton, since 1778 commander-in-chief.

After this the war was transferred mainly to the South. Greene, placed by Congress in command of the southern department, had all that he could do to uphold his country's flag against the British general Cornwallis, in the active campaign of 1781 in the Carolinas. After some hair-breadth escapes and two or three reverses, he found himself gaining ground. One after another the British posts fell into his hands, till at last only Charleston was left to them. Meanwhile Cornwallis, with about seven thousand men, after ravaging southern Virginia, had retired to Yorktown and there intrenched himself.

On the last day of summer, 1781, a French fleet reached Chesapeake Bay, and Washington, seeing his opportunity, concerted with its commander a joint attack on Cornwallis. Keeping Clinton at New York in ignorance of his design, he moved on Yorktown as rapidly as possible, and with his French allies invested the fortifications of the enemy. A sally proved unsuccessful, resistance vain ; on the 19th of October, 1781, Cornwallis was obliged to capitulate.

This surrender virtually closed the Revolutionary War. George III. and his minister Lord North had no mind thus to give up the revolted colonies ; but the English people had something to say on the subject, and they little rel-

ished the heavy taxes which the war made necessary. Accordingly, in 1783 the independence of the United States was acknowledged by Great Britain.

Adoption of the Federal Constitution.—On the conclusion of the war, the United States labored under great difficulties as regarded credit, efficient government, and the condition of the people; but by means of industry, economy, and wise counsels, a better state of things was gradually brought about. In 1787, at an assembly of representatives from the several states, a Constitution was framed, and in 1789 a government was organized under it. According to this Constitution, the states were united in a federal republic; the legislative power was vested in a Congress consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives; the executive, in a President, elected for four years.

The first president under the new Constitution was Washington, the beloved chief who with an unwavering trust in Providence had achieved a result so grand with resources so slender. Frederick the Great, of Prussia, but expressed the sentiment of the first military men of Europe, when he sent Washington a sword inscribed "From the oldest general in the world to THE GREATEST."

The Thirteen Original States.

VIRGINIA, first settled by the English, at Jamestown, 1607.

NEW YORK, by the Dutch, at New Amsterdam, 1614.

NEW JERSEY, by the Dutch, at Bergen, 1618.

MASSACHUSETTS, by the English, at Plymouth, 1620.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, by the English, near Portsmouth, 1623.

MARYLAND, by the English, at St. Mary's, 1634.

CONNECTICUT, by emigrants from Massachusetts, at Windsor, 1635.

RHODE ISLAND, by Roger Williams, at Providence, 1636.

DELAWARE, by the Swedes and Finns, on Christiana Creek, 1638.

PENNSYLVANIA, by Swedes from Delaware, 1643; by William Penn, 1683.

NORTH CAROLINA, by emigrants from Virginia, on the Roanoke, 1653.

SOUTH CAROLINA, by the English, near Charleston, 1670.

GEORGIA, by the English under Oglethorpe, at Savannah, 1733.

CHAPTER LV.

PERIOD OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Accession of Louis XVI.—On the death of Louis XV. (1774), his gentle grandson, not yet twenty years of age, became king of France. The young prince had taken to wife the daughter of Maria Theresa, Marie Antoinette, whom writers describe as of marvellous loveliness and grace. But the kingdom which Louis XVI. inherited was exhausted and burdened with an enormous national debt. A great crisis was evidently at hand. Louis XV. had perceived the gathering storm, and made the selfish prophecy, "The throne is old, but it will last my time." No wonder that the new monarch, when the servile courtiers rushed from the death-bed of his grandfather to hail him as their king, took the hand of his wife, and falling on his knees implored divine guidance and protection.

The very first acts of Louis XVI., looking toward retrenchment and the welfare of his people, proclaimed his good intentions. But in order to understand the difficulties in the way of the young reformer, we must consider more minutely the state of France at the time.

Causes of the Revolution.—The great mass of the French people were impoverished. Two-thirds of the soil was held by the nobles and clergy, who were almost entirely exempt from taxation, and squandered their wealth in the gay *salons* of Paris. The arrogance of the upper classes was almost intolerable ; there was no justice for the poor, who were trodden down by the aristocracy without mercy. When the peasant's taxes were paid, scarcely enough was left to keep his family in coarse food and rags. Cases were even known of famished men eating grass like the beasts of the field, in default of proper sustenance, or falling by the road-side from sheer exhaustion.

The French watched the struggle for liberty in the New World with vital interest. Many who helped to establish American freedom brought back with them the democratic sentiments they had imbibed ; and from these, exaggerated and perverted views of republicanism rapidly spread among the laboring classes. The ministers of the king, meanwhile, were trying to reform abuses and diminish the national debt ; but in vain, for every plan of general taxation was obstinately opposed by the privileged orders.

The States-general.—At length a cry was raised for a meeting of the States-general, as the last resort. It was hoped that the combined wisdom of the three estates—the nobles, the clergy, and the commonalty, constituting the *tiers-état* (*te-ayrz' a-tah'*), or third estate—would be able to find some satisfactory solution of the perplexing problem. Louis XVI. complied with the demand of the nation, and this body, which had not met since 1614, was convened in May, 1789, at Versailles,* then the royal residence, eleven miles from Paris.

Dissensions at once arose as to the manner of voting ; and after several weeks, the Commons, acting independently of the two higher estates, declared themselves the National Assembly. When the king attempted to close their session, Mirabeau (*me-rah-bo'*), a prominent leader distinguished for impetuous eloquence, sent word to him, "We sit here by the authority of the people, and nothing shall drive us hence but the bayonet." The French Revolution, induced by the extravagance of Louis XIV. and the license and infidelity that characterized the reign of his successor, had at last begun. The irresolute king yielded to the Assembly, and at his request the higher orders joined the Commons in their deliberations.

Early Excesses.—The wildest excitement, meanwhile,

* For the places mentioned in this chapter, see Map, p. 416.

prevailed among the masses, driven to frenzy by revolutionary orators. All France was soon thrown into a ferment by democratic clubs, the most notorious being that of the Jacobins, so called from the Jacobin convent in Paris where its meetings were held. A national guard was formed, of which Lafayette, identified with the contest for freedom in America, received the command, and the tricolored cockade was adopted as the revolutionary emblem. In July, 1789, the mad Parisian mob stormed the Bastile, the old prison associated in their minds with cruelties and horrors, and levelled its walls to the ground. When the king was informed of this, he exclaimed, "What, rebellion!" "No, sire," was the reply, "rather say revolution."

Similar scenes of violence were enacted throughout the kingdom. The peasantry rose with pitchfork and firebrand, burned the villas of the nobles, and tortured the unhappy occupants to death or drove them into the forests to perish. The privileged orders of the Assembly gave way before the storm, and on August 4, 1789, voluntarily renounced their feudal rights, while equal taxation was decreed.

It was too late, however, for this concession to allay the excitement in Paris. Food was scarce; and on the 5th of October a hideous rabble, composed of the vilest women and the scum of the city, clamoring for bread, took up its march for Versailles. A crowd of these abandoned wretches burst into the Assembly, and besieged the palace with ribald songs and oaths. Some forced their way in, and the queen narrowly escaped assassination; Lafayette's interposition saved the royal party for a season. At last the cry was raised, "To Paris!" and the king, with his family, was obliged to go to the capital under the escort of the mob, the heads of his murdered guardsmen borne before him on pikes. The Assembly was removed

to Paris, and the royal family became prisoners in their own palace, the Tuileries (*twel-re'*).

Flight of the Nobles and King.—In his hour of need, Louis XVI. was deserted by the princes of the blood and the great body of the nobility. Thousands of the upper classes, seizing what they could, fled in disguise from France, hoping to secure foreign aid against the revolutionists. Finally, in desperation, the king himself secretly left the palace with his family one night, and made for the frontier, but was recognized, apprehended, and obliged to return. He afterward swore to support the constitution which had been framed by the Assembly, and in September, 1791, that body broke up.

The Legislative Assembly.—In the Legislative Assembly, convened according to the provisions of the new constitution, the moderate Girondists, deriving their name from La Gironde (*je-rond'*), the department from which the principal members came, had the majority. Conspicuous in this party was the Minister of the Interior, Roland, whose wife, a highly-gifted enthusiast in the cause of liberty, had lamented in girlhood that she had not been born a Roman or a Spartan maid. The dream of the Girondists was a republic like those of antiquity, or that just established by the American patriots.

Quite different from the Girondists were the Red Jacobins of the Revolution, called Mountainists from the high seats which they occupied in the Assembly. Their chiefs were the blood-thirsty levellers, Marat (*mah-rah'*), Dan'ton, and Rob'espierre, who were all-powerful among the lower classes.

By order of the new Assembly, an army was raised to defend the frontiers, for Austria, Prussia, and other European states, were making hostile preparations. In April, 1792, war was declared, and France plunged into a long and bloody conflict with the monarchical powers.

The Austrians and Prussians, joined by many of the "emigrants," as the fugitive nobles were called, immediately invaded France from the north-east. The advance of the allies, and the menacing proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick, their leader, against the Assembly and in favor of Louis, goaded the French people to fury. The cry arose, "The country is in danger!" The Jacobins insidiously fed the flame; and at length the fierce Commune of Paris, the *Sans-culottes* (*tatterdemalions*), composed of the very dregs of the populace, insisted on the deposition of the king as necessary to the public safety. On the 10th of August, the mob assaulted the Tuileries; but Louis XVI., with his family, survived the slaughter of his faithful Swiss guards, and was imprisoned in the Temple, an old fortress of the Knights Templars.

September Days.—The Commune, now more powerful than the Assembly, proceeded to further acts of violence. Lafayette, who made a last effort to save the king and the constitution, was obliged to fly for his life, but was arrested by the Austrian government and thrown into prison.

The events of the 10th of August hastened the advance of the invading army; but the rabble determined that, if they must fall, their enemies should first perish. The barriers of the city were closed for forty-eight hours; bands of pikemen paraded the streets, broke into the houses, and seized on all who were suspected, however unjustly, of any leaning toward the hated "aristocrats." These unfortunates were doomed to frightful deaths. On September 2d the massacre began. Troops of butchers entered the prisons, and hacked to pieces the trembling occupants. Women forgot the gentler instincts of their sex, and "seats for ladies" were arranged where they could enjoy to the full the carnival of blood. The people of France had become demons.

The National Convention.—The Legislative Assembly

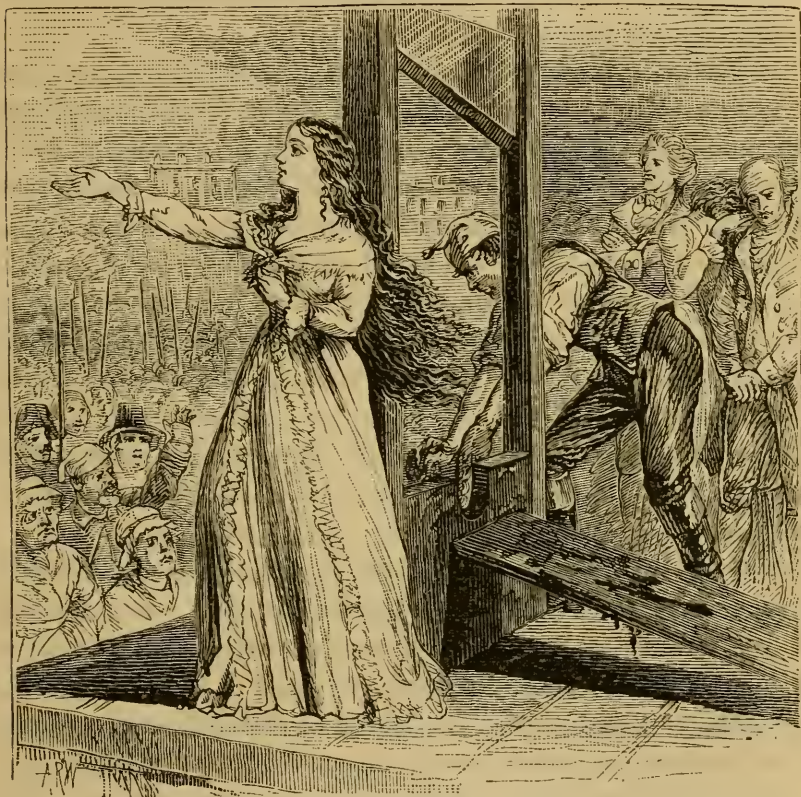
gave place to the National Convention, September 21, 1792. This body was made up in part of conservative Girondists, who wished to check the horrors of the Revolution, but chiefly of the extreme republicans of the Mountain, who were supported by the Commune. France was now proclaimed a republic. Her armies, meanwhile, had triumphed over the Prussians, and in November the Austrians were defeated in the battle of Jemmapes (*zhem-mahp'*) by General Dumouriez (*dü-moo-re-a'*). The conquest of Belgium was speedily completed, and that country was incorporated in the French Republic. Intoxicated with these successes, the Convention decreed that it would aid all countries desirous of recovering their liberty.

The party of the Mountain kept growing in power, and not satisfied with the blood of thousands of victims at last demanded that of the king. Louis XVI. was tried for treason and condemned to immediate execution. His kinsman, the infamous Philip of Orleans, who assumed the title *Equality* and courted the favor of the Commune, voted for his death. In January, 1793, he was conducted to the guillotine.* "Frenchmen," he said, "I die innocent, and pray that my blood may not fall upon France." His words were interrupted by the roll of drums. The executioners dragged him beneath the axe; and when his head fell, the furious rabble dipped their pikes in his blood, and shouted through Paris, "*Vive la république!*"

The murder of Louis XVI. filled the neighboring coun-

* This fatal instrument was so called from Dr. Guillotin, a physician of Paris, who recommended its use as a less cruel method of execution than others in vogue at the time. It consisted of a heavy knife, descending between two erect grooved posts, on a block which received the head of the sufferer. Some women of the day wore in their bonnets ornaments in the shape of guillotines; and even children, carried away by the terrible example of their parents, made models of the instrument, and amused themselves by guillotining birds and small animals.

tries with indignation, and nearly all Europe joined in a coalition against the republic. Insurrections also broke out in France, the most formidable being the revolt of La Vendée (*lah von'-da'*), a district south of the Loire and bordering on the ocean, where the peasants had armed to protect their institutions and religion. Undismayed by



EXECUTION OF MADAME ROLAND.

the number of their enemies, the French republicans raised new levies, and enthusiastic volunteers marched to the scene of war singing the Marseilles Hymn.

Fall of the Girondists.—At Paris, the work of death went on. The Girondists, horrified at the fate of the king yet unable to prevent it, read in it their own doom. Mod-

eration had now become treason, and they were swept away like straws before the hurricane. Among others of her party, Madame Roland was condemned. As she ascended the scaffold, her eye fell on the great statue of Liberty standing near the guillotine, and she gave utterance to a sentiment which found an echo in many hearts, "Ah, Liberty! how many crimes are committed in thy name!"

Charlotte Corday.—A number of the Girondists escaped to Caen (*kon*). From this place came forth an avenger, in the beautiful and enthusiastic Charlotte Corday'. After the overthrow of the Girondists, with whom she had warmly sympathized, she resolved to consecrate her life to her country and strike at the heart of the Mountain by assassinating its chief. Repairing to Paris, she gained access to Marat; and while pretending to give the names of his enemies in Caen, she stabbed him to the heart. Death by the guillotine she had expected, and she met it with the utmost composure. When the brutal executioner buffeted the severed head, her cheek flushed at the indignity.

Reign of Terror.—The knife of Charlotte Corday only aggravated the evil it was intended to cure. The surviving Mountainists became more savage than ever, and Robespierre, a tiger in human form, revelled in slaughter. By him Marie Antoinette, "the queen of festivals in her youth, the queen of sorrows in her premature old age," was brought to the guillotine—her beauty gone, her hair whitened by grief, her royal robes and jewels exchanged for filthy tatters. Her son (Louis XVII.) afterward perished through the inhumanity of his jailers.

Philip Equality also fell before the jealousy of Robespierre. Amid the hisses and curses of the people, he shrugged his shoulders and remarked, "They used to applaud me." Anarchy and terror reigned throughout

France ; and so awful was the suspense that some even sought relief by suicide.

The horrors of the French Revolution culminated in the abolition of the Christian religion. The worship of Reason was substituted. An abandoned woman personated the goddess, draped with white, the cap of liberty covering her flowing hair, and received the homage of all classes. Death was pronounced an eternal sleep. There was no sacrilege or blasphemy too great to be applauded by this once Christian nation.

Amid the excesses which it authorized, the Convention found time to adopt a new system of weights and measures, to change the names of the months,* and to establish as a new era the institution of the republic, September 22, 1792.

Outrages in the Provinces.—Terror reigned as absolutely in many of the French cities as in the capital. At Nantes, the revolutionists emulated in atrocity the terrorists of Paris, enclosing their victims in barges by hundreds and sinking them in the Loire (*l'wahr*). Desolation was spread through the adjacent territory of La Vendée. The Vendean royalists, at first successful under brave leaders, were in the end overpowered, fighting to the last with desperate valor.

The city of Lyons, which resisted the army of the Convention, was reduced to ruins ; and when the guillotine proved too slow in its operation, the people were mowed down in masses with grape-shot.

Toulon, to escape a similar fate, surrendered to the English. It was recovered, however, by the French republicans, through the superior genius of a young artil-

* The French months "Snowy," "Showery," and "Windy," corresponded most nearly with January, February, and March. The names of the succeeding months have been translated Buddy, Flowery, and Meadowy ; Harvesty, Hot, and Fruity ; Vintagy, Chilly, and Frosty.

lery officer, Napoleon Bonaparte, a native of Corsica, who there first gave evidence of that military genius which was to dazzle the world. When a galling fire drove from one of his batteries those who served it, he placed over it a placard inscribed, "The battery of men without fear," and took his place at the deserted guns. In a moment he was surrounded by numbers eager to share with him the post of glory.

Fall of Danton and Robespierre.—When the revolutionists had exhausted their rage on monarchists, aristocrats, and Girondists, they turned their arms against each other. Danton and his adherents, who sought to stop the Reign of Terror, perished on the scaffold. As he listened to his death-sentence, Danton said, "I drag Robespierre after me in my fall." His words were prophetic. The blood-stained despot, in whose hands was the life of every man in France, was at last denounced before the Convention. Pale with rage, he tried to speak, but his words were drowned by yells of "Down with the tyrant!" He foamed at the mouth, speech failed him, and as he sank exhausted, a voice cried, "Wretch! the blood of Danton chokes thee!" He was condemned, and, after a futile attempt to kill himself, was carried in a cart to the guillotine amid the execrations of the people. One who appreciated his character wrote as an epitaph, "Passenger, lament not for Robespierre; for, were he living, thou wouldst be dead."

With the execution of Robespierre, July 28, 1794, terminated the Reign of Terror. The Holy Mountain, as its admirers called their party, breathed its last—the Holy Guillotine rested from its labors. The victims of the French Revolution, as enumerated by a republican writer, amounted to more than a million persons, the majority of whom belonged to the middle and lower classes, in whose interest it was begun.

A revulsion of feeling now took place, the moderate party recovered its influence, and many of the terrorist leaders perished by the same guillotine that had destroyed their victims. Five persons, forming what is known as "the Directory," were henceforth charged with the execution of the laws. An offensive measure of the Convention occasioned a violent uprising in Paris; but the cannon of Napoleon soon brought the populace to their senses—the Parisian mob had at last found its master.

Progress of the French Arms.—Meanwhile the French generals, after some reverses, had driven back the allies, successfully invaded Spain, and conquered Holland. During the war with the last-named country, the French cavalry accomplished the strange feat of charging and capturing a Dutch fleet which was frozen up in the Zuyder Zee. In this campaign, the French derived valuable aid from balloons, from which the movements of the enemy were reported to the army. Holland became "the Batavian Republic," and allied itself with France. In 1795, Prussia and Spain made peace, and Gustavus IV. of Sweden recognized the French Republic.

Napoleon's Italian Campaign.—Austria continued the war; and in 1796, while two French armies were maintained by the Directory in Germany, a third was sent into Italy to advance upon Austria from that quarter. Its command was given to Napoleon, whose history for the next twenty years is the history of Europe.

The rule of this great general was "the strongest force on the weakest point." Unerring calculations and matchless rapidity insured his success. In eighteen pitched battles and over sixty minor engagements, he led his troops to victory. The terrible passage of the bridge of Lodi (*lo'de*), swept by the Austrian artillery, kindled, as he himself declared, the first spark of his ambition. Northern Italy was conquered, the Cisalpine Republic

erected, and many works of art were sent to Paris, together with large sums for the support of the government.

The war was concluded in October, 1797. Pending the negotiations, Napoleon, incensed at the delay, in an interview with the Austrian agent took from the mantel a costly vase belonging to the latter, and with the words, "The truce is at an end; before the close of autumn I will shatter your monarchy as easily as this porcelain," dashed it to pieces on the floor. The next day, the Treaty of Campo Formio was signed; Austria recognized the Rhine and the Alps as the boundaries of France.

Egyptian Expedition.—Napoleon returned to Paris an acknowledged hero, and was strongly urged to undertake the invasion of England. He deemed it safer to aim the stroke through British India, and as an initiatory step prevailed on the government to fit out an armament for operations in Egypt and Syria. In 1798 he disembarked near Alexandria, took the city, almost annihilated the Mamelukes* in the shadow of the Pyramids, and occupied the Egyptian capital.

Not long afterward the English admiral Nelson fell in with Napoleon's ships, which were anchored off Alexandria, and the battle of the Nile ensued, resulting in the destruction of the French fleet. When Nelson first sighted it, he exclaimed, "Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey." Honors and rewards were bestowed on him, and he was raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile.

Despite this great reverse, Napoleon pushed on into Syria and took Jaffa, but vainly assaulted Acre, in which he said lay the fate of the East. On his return to Egypt, he again defeated the Turks; and then learning that a

* The old Mamelukes of Tartar descent had now been replaced with Circassians and Georgians, similarly trained in the art of war.

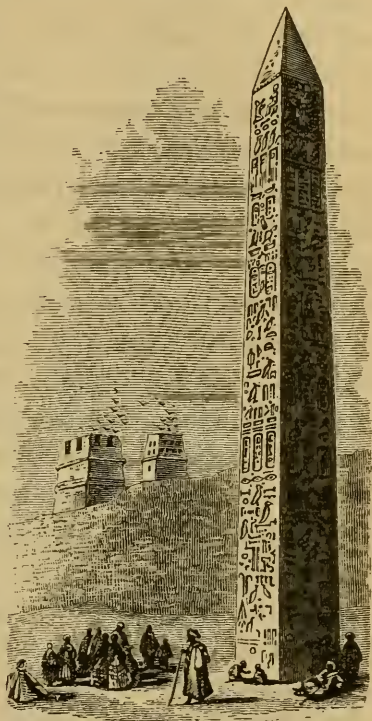
new coalition had been formed against France, he set sail from the land of obelisks with a few followers.

During his absence from Europe, Italy had been reconquered by the combined powers; but the French remained masters of the Netherlands, and of Switzerland, which they had reduced and converted into "the Helvetic Republic." On reaching Paris, he overthrew the unstable government, established the Consulate, and as First Consul of the French Republic wielded supreme power. Then resuming military operations, he crossed the Alps, routed the Austrians at Marengo, and by this single blow recovered Italy (June, 1800).

It was at the battle of Marengo that the consular guard of only eight hundred men proved itself "a column of granite," by withstanding unbroken for five hours the Austrian cavalry and artillery. Napoleon there learned what

he might accomplish with a body of men entirely devoted to him, and the Old Guard, which he organized in consequence, earned immortality by grand deeds on many a bloody field.

The victory of General Moreau at Hohenlinden followed, and the Austrians gladly made peace (1801). Treaties were also concluded with Spain, Turkey, and Russia, which had joined the coalition. Meantime, "the Armed Neutrality of the North" was planned by the



EGYPTIAN OBELISK.

ever-active Napoleon, as a check to the power still wielded by England through her gallant navy. The northern alliance, however, was short-lived, Lord Nelson destroying the Danish fleet at Copenhagen (1801). When signalled by his superior to withdraw from the battle, he placed the glass to his blind eye, and, saying that he could not see the signal, ordered his colors to be nailed to the mast.

Europe at Peace.—In March, 1802, the Peace of Amiens was concluded, and England with the rest of Europe acknowledged the French Republic. A short respite was thus afforded to the nations, and Napoleon used it to improve and strengthen his country, carrying out a wise, liberal, and conciliatory policy. The “emigrants” were invited back; a new order of nobility, the Legion of Honor, was formed; and provision was made for a thorough system of public instruction. The College of France and various military schools were organized, and measures taken to insure their efficiency. Christianity had already been re-established in France, and the idolized Napoleon was made consul for life in August, 1802.

During the Revolution, civil war had raged in the island of St. Domingo, the most valuable of the French colonies in the West Indies, resulting in the abolition of slavery and the formation of a liberal constitution. Toussaint L'Ouverture (*too-san' loo-ver-tür'*), a negro of superior ability, descended from an African king, had become governor-general; and under his wise administration good order and prosperity had revived. To crush him and restore slavery, Napoleon sent an army to the island. After a treaty of peace had been concluded, Toussaint was treacherously arrested, and starved to death in a French dungeon. Through the resistance of the colonists, the ravages of the yellow fever, and the interference of the English, the island was ultimately lost to France.

Establishment of the Empire.—Napoleon's ambition was not satisfied with the title of First Consul. In 1804 he had himself declared Emperor by the Senate. The pope came to Paris to crown him, and France willingly submitted to the yoke which it had shaken off by such dreadful struggles.

The same year that witnessed the establishment of the empire gave to France the *Code Napoléon*, a digest of laws which with little change still remains in force in that country—the most useful monument of Napoleon's genius. It was under discussion for four years,—merchants, as well as statesmen, lawyers, and jurists, being called on to contribute from their knowledge and experience to its formation.

The Eighteenth Century.

The march of intellect proved by the growth of science. Astronomy received important aid from Sir William Herschel, a German by birth but resident of England, who made many discoveries (the planet Uranus in 1781); also from the French mathematical astronomer La Place (*lah plahs*), author of an "Exposition of the System of the Universe," and a "Treatise on Celestial Mechanics." Chemistry was advanced by the researches of the French philosopher Lavoisier (*lah-vwah-ze-a'*), who reformed the nomenclature of the science, and the Englishmen Priestley (discoverer of oxygen gas) and Sir Humphry Davy (1778–1829). What Lavoisier was to Chemistry, the Swede Linnæus was to Botany, and the German Werner to Geology and Mineralogy. Two Italians, Galvani (*gahl-vah'ne*) and Volta, share the honor of discovering and investigating chemical electricity.

Great inventions: the cotton-spinning machine of Arkwright, 1768; the improved steam-engine of Watt, patented in 1769; and the cotton-gin of Whitney, a native of Massachusetts, for removing the seeds from cotton, which was before done by hand. Improved systems of stenography, or short-hand writing, introduced.

Eminent musical composers: Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven (1770–1827).

The people beginning actively to assert their rights. First mutterings of the revolutionary tempest that shook Europe to its centre in the following century.

CHAPTER LVI.

THE FIRST FRENCH EMPIRE.

Third Coalition against France.—The Peace of Amiens* was not lasting. The interference of Napoleon in European affairs alarmed the continental powers ; and the annexation of new territories to his dominions, together with his vast military preparations, incensed England. Napoleon declared his aversion to a fresh war. Still he said, “If England draws the sword, I will throw away the scabbard.” England was ready to accept the challenge, and hostilities were resumed between the rival nations in the spring of 1803.

After the establishment of the empire, a third coalition was organized by Britain, Austria, Russia, and Sweden, to wrest from the upstart “soldier of fortune,” as they regarded him, the territories which his victorious arms had added to France. Prussia was induced to remain neutral by the promise of Hanover from the French emperor.

Austerlitz and Trafalgar.—While the allies were leisurely arranging their plans, Napoleon, who had been making overwhelming preparations for the invasion of England, suddenly set in motion his great army of over 180,000 men. Its masses of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, swept into astonished Germany. Victory succeeded victory, Ulm surrendered with its fortress and magazines, and Napoleon triumphantly entered Vienna, from which the emperor Francis II. precipitately fled. Then, as he said, with “a clap of thunder” the French commander finished the campaign in the great “battle of the three emperors.” Concentrating his forces on the field of Austerlitz, he nearly annihilated the combined Russians and Austrians. From the neighboring heights the emperors of Germany

* For this place and others, see Map, p. 416.

and Russia beheld the overthrow of their magnificent armies. Alexander, the successor of Paul (p. 384) on the throne of the czars, witnessed with dismay the terrific duel between his imperial guard and that of Napoleon, and saw the flower of his soldiery give way before the resistless onset of the horse-grenadiers of the Old Guard (December 2, 1805). After the battle, Francis humbly sought the victor's tent to sue for peace, acknowledging that further resistance was impossible.

Thus in four months Napoleon crushed his enemies. Austria he trampled beneath his feet, bestowing her territories on his friends; and while his brave marshals became dukes and princes, the crown of Naples was given to his brother Joseph, and Louis, another brother, was made king of Holland. In this way were kingdoms dismembered, governments disposed of, monarchs created. The "Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation," which had stood for a thousand years, was shattered by these blows; a large number of its states, uniting themselves in the Confederation of the Rhine, accepted the protection of "the man of destiny." Francis II. laid down his title, and became Francis I. of Austria; while Napoleon was in fact the emperor of Germany.

England, meanwhile, had triumphed on the sea. In October, 1805, Nelson destroyed the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar', but paid for the victory with his life. His dying words were, "Thank God, I have done my duty." Britain lost in Nelson the greatest man that ever upheld her maritime supremacy. When flushed with success and burning to add England to their conquests, the French were made by him to realize the words of one of their own writers, "The trident of Neptune is the sceptre of the world."

Jena and Auerstadt.—Now that Austria was humbled and Russia crippled, Prussia, finding herself the dupe of

Napoleon, recklessly threw down the gauntlet to his victorious legions. Before they had all left Germany, orders were issued for these veterans to bear their eagles back to the field. They fell like an avalanche on the astounded enemy, and a single day sealed the fate of Prussia by the double victory of Jen'a and Auerstadt (*öw'er-stet*), October 14, 1806. The military power of the kingdom was broken, and on the 27th Napoleon, in the midst of his Old Guard, rode into the capital of Frederick the Great. In a few weeks he had accomplished what all Europe, during the Seven Years' War, attempted in vain,—the overthrow of Prussia.

Eylau and Friedland.—Frederick William III., the Prussian king, refused peace on the terms offered by Napoleon, for he hoped that with the aid of Russia, which had again declared war against France, he might yet check the conqueror of Europe. But Napoleon marched into Poland, drove back the Russians, and took Warsaw, the ancient capital. Many of the Poles now flew to arms and swelled the French ranks.

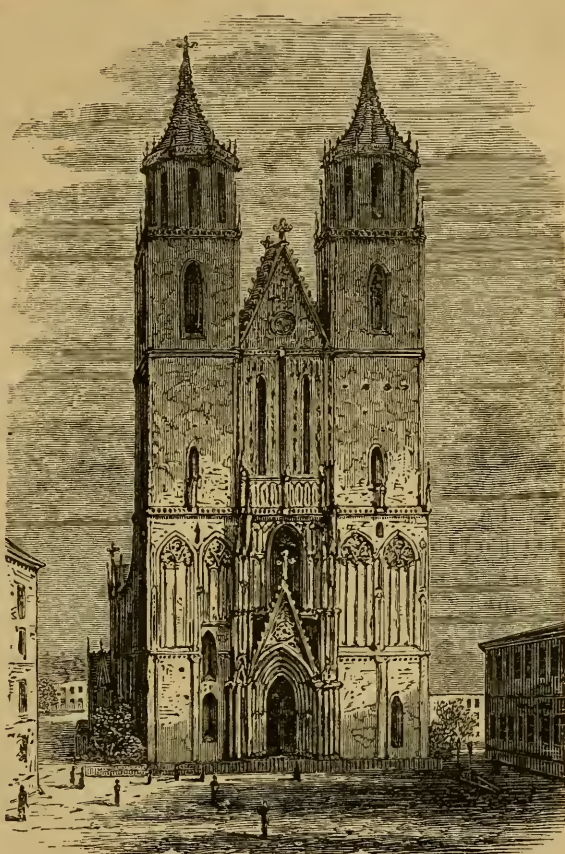
On the field of Eylau (*i'löw*), in February, 1807, the Russians obstinately withstood Napoleon. This battle was indecisive; but at Friedland, in the following June, the French arms were crowned with success. Alexander suffered losses so severe that he requested an armistice, during which he was rowed to a raft anchored in the river Niemen, to hold an interview with Napoleon.

The Peace of Tilsit was soon after arranged, and the two emperors planned the partition of Europe between themselves. The unfortunate Frederick William was stripped of half his dominions, in spite of the prayers of his fascinating queen. Once, when Napoleon handed her a rose, she accepted the flower, saying, "with Magdeburg."*

* This city, whose noble cathedral had been the only edifice of note left at its sack in the Thirty Years' War, had meanwhile been rebuilt.

“Madam,” answered the French emperor, “it is for me to give, you have only to accept.” The new kingdom of Westphalia was created for Napoleon’s youngest brother Jerome, principally out of Prussian territory ; and nearly all of Prussian Poland was erected into the duchy of Warsaw, and conferred upon the elector of Saxony. The grand conceptions of Napoleon charmed the czar, to whom was left the spoliation of Sweden. The ruin of England was determined on ; and even the Ottoman Empire was threatened with dismemberment.

Peninsular War.—Napoleon was now without a rival. On his return to Paris, he directed his attention for a time to the internal improvement of his empire. But the pretended apostle of liberty now became himself the most despotic of autocrats. He had declared England in a state of blockade, and closed the ports of Europe against her. Portugal presumed to disobey, and trade with Britain ; when the emperor, declaring that the “House of Braganza



CATHEDRAL OF MAGDEBURG.

had ceased to reign," sent his marshal Junot (*zhü-no'*) at the head of an army to add another link to his chain of conquests. The royal family set sail for their colonies in Brazil, and Portugal fell without striking a blow.

Napoleon now proceeded to seize the whole peninsula. Availing himself of disturbances in Spain, he dethroned the Bourbons, obliging the king Charles IV. and his son Ferdinand to renounce their right to the crown. This he gave to his brother Joseph, while Naples was transferred to his marshal Murat (*mü-rah'*).

The Spanish, however, did not tamely submit to the new king. The spirit of the nation was roused ; the very catechism in which the youth were instructed taught that the killing of a Frenchman was a meritorious act. More of the invaders fell by the assassin's knife than the soldier's bullet.

Yet Spain unaided must have been subdued. England embraced her cause, and in July, 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley landed in Portugal and soon cleared that country of the enemy. Joseph fled from Madrid, and Napoleon himself was obliged to take the command to revive the glory of his eagles. Three splendid victories over the Spaniards placed him in possession of the capital, and in four weeks the crown was restored to his brother. The English also were obliged to withdraw from Spain, though not till they had repulsed the enemy at Corunna, where their intrepid leader, Sir John Moore, died on the field of glory. The emperor, however, soon had to leave the Spanish war to his marshals ; for Austria, smarting under her losses and thinking that Napoleon's hands were full elsewhere, was preparing to fall on him with overwhelming force.

Eckmühl and Wagram.—But Austria had reckoned without her host. With even more than his accustomed celerity, Napoleon concentrated his troops, fell upon the enemy, worsted the Archduke at Eckmühl, and in one

month from the time the Austrians began hostilities his cannon were thundering before their capital. Near the village of Aspern in May, 1809, Napoleon suffered a reverse, and Lannes (*lahn*), one of his bravest marshals, fell. Of this hero he said, "I found him a dwarf and I lost him a giant."

The French retrieved their fortune in the decisive battle of Wagram (*wah'gram*), where, within sight of the crowded roofs of Vienna, the Austrian army was routed. Francis was again at the mercy of Napoleon, and submitted to a disadvantageous peace. In the following spring the Archduchess Maria Louisa became the bride of the French emperor, who divorced his wife Josephine, to make room for a daughter of the Hapsburgs. A son was born the next year, to whom his father gave the title of "King of Rome."

Meanwhile Napoleon added the States of the Church to his dominions, and sent the pope in captivity to France. In 1810, Bernadotte (*behr-nă-dot'*), a favorite French marshal, was elected crown-prince of Sweden, Charles XIII. being then king of that country.

Russian Campaign.—The sudden friendship between Alexander and Napoleon soon gave way to a mutual distrust, which resulted in war. The French emperor, hoping to win new laurels on the plains of Russia, collected a magnificent army of 500,000 men ; and, after holding at Dresden a court of kings and princes such as Europe had never before seen, he entered the territory of the czar in the summer of 1812. As in the case of Charles XII., it proved a fatal step. The Russians obstinately disputed Napoleon's advance, made a stand at Borodino which cost him 30,000 men, and driven thence sullenly fell back, followed by the invader, who, on reaching Moscow, expected to find rest and supplies for his jaded men. But the city was silent ; its inhabitants had fled, leaving an empty triumph

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE



to the enemy. Soon after the French entered, Moscow was fired by incendiaries, and the greater part was reduced to ruins. Alexander refused to treat, and just as the Russian winter commenced, Napoleon was obliged to retire.

Now was enacted the most appalling tragedy of modern times. Attacked by hordes of Cossacks, with starvation staring them in the face, and the intense cold freezing them even as they staggered along, the Grand Army of Napoleon dwindled to a disordered band of fugitives. But the Old Guard, through the horrors of this retreat, maintained its heroic character. Its impenetrable squares remained in Russia, food for the raven and the wolf; and long might one trace the course of the retiring host by the skeletons that whitened on the soil. The last to leave Russia was Marshal Ney, "the bravest of the brave," whose soul Napoleon said was "tempered with steel." On entering a Prussian village near the frontier, his face disfigured with powder, he was asked who he was, and replied, "I am the rear-guard of the Grand Army."

Napoleon's Downfall.—The reverses of Napoleon were the signal for his enemies to rise against him. A sixth great coalition was formed to crush him, and tens of thousands were soon on the march to France. But Napoleon was not appalled. Another army of 350,000 men was drawn from his exhausted country, and these beardless conscripts proved more than a match for the Russians and Prussians on the fields of Lutzen and Bautzen (*böwt'sen*). Austria soon after perfidiously changed sides; and in October, 1813, the city of Leipsic witnessed the decisive struggle. In spite of prodigies of valor performed by his invincible guard, Napoleon was hopelessly defeated. Breaking through an army of Bavarians, he fell back on France, with only 60,000 effective men left out of his splendid army. He now prepared to defend his empire

against the million of enemies that were rolling on to overwhelm it.

The allies, pursuing, crossed the Rhine ; Wellesley, now Duke of Wellington, having driven the French out of Spain, descended the Pyrenees, and the Campaign of France at last began. Never did the genius of Napoleon appear so bright as in this dark hour when, betrayed by his former friends, he engaged single-handed with Europe. But neither strategy nor bravery availed against the innumerable hosts of invaders. Paris fell, and on the 31st of March, 1814, the victorious allies entered the capital amid the acclamations of the fickle people. Napoleon abdicated the crown, and Louis XVIII., brother of the king who was guillotined during the Revolution, ascended the throne of the Bourbons. The Congress of Vienna then assembled, and the princes of Europe celebrated their triumph with magnificent balls and feastings. The victors allowed Napoleon a pension and the little island of Elba in the Mediterranean, between Corsica and the Italian coast. Several hundred of his old guardsmen became the companions of his exile.

But the French people, particularly the disbanded soldiers, grew discontented with Bourbon rule. Everywhere it was whispered that when the violet began to bud in the spring, a great change might be expected. The emperor, therefore, was mysteriously referred to as Corporal Violet.

The Hundred Days.—In the latter part of February, 1815, Napoleon, who had maintained a correspondence with his friends in France, left Elba with about a thousand men. On the 1st of March he landed on the French coast, and began a triumphant advance toward Paris. At Grenoble he met a regiment ordered to apprehend him ; when, throwing back his cloak, he exclaimed, “ My friends, if there is one among you who wishes to kill his emperor, he has it in his power.” The effect was electric, and with

shouts of "*Vive l'empereur!*" the soldiers joined his little army. Ney, who had embraced the cause of the Bourbons, and promised to bring Bonaparte to Louis in an iron cage, united his force with that of Napoleon. On the 20th, the king left the capital, and the emperor re-occupied it to the great delight of the people.

Napoleon at once raised a new army, reorganized the Old Guard, and boldly threw himself into the conflict which he saw was inevitable. The Duke of Wellington, and Blücher (*bloo'ker*), an able Prussian marshal, were now his opponents. The final engagement, on which hung the fate of Europe, took place at Waterloo, a few miles from the capital of Belgium, June 18, 1815. Napoleon began the attack, exclaiming, as he caught sight of the enemy, "I have these English at last!" The British soldiers for eight hours unflinchingly stood their ground. Blücher with his Prussians joined them in a critical moment, and the Old Guard, in its last charge to save Napoleon's crown, was thrown into confusion. Never before had the French seen the enemy penetrate its ranks; and now, when its invincible eagles were driven back, when the "column of granite" melted away amid volleys of flame, the despairing shriek arose, "The Guard recoils!" and Napoleon's army fled from the field. But the veterans still gave battle, and, when called upon to lay down their arms, fought on, while their chief replied, "The guard dies, it never surrenders!" Some of the officers are said to have killed themselves rather than survive, and the Old Guard of Napoleon, in its death-struggle, covered itself with immortal glory.

Restoration of the Bourbons.—After the battle of Waterloo, Napoleon abdicated a second time; and his rule, which had lasted a hundred days, was over. It has been computed that Europe lost more than five millions of men through his insatiable ambition. The Bourbons were rein-

stated, and by the Treaty of Paris (November, 1815) the old boundaries were re-established. In the reorganization of Europe, Norway was taken from Denmark and annexed to Sweden.

Napoleon gave himself up to the captain of a British war-vessel, and was sent by the English government to St. Hele'na. Here he died in 1821, while the rocky island was shaken to its centre by a tremendous storm.

1800 A. D.—Fortieth year of the reign of George III. of England; William Pitt (the younger) prime minister; Fox an eminent Whig leader; union of England and Ireland. Napoleon first consul of France; Talleyrand minister of foreign affairs; brilliant campaign of Napoleon in Italy; Marengo; Hohenlinden. European republics the outgrowth of the French Revolution: the Batavian Republic (Holland), Helvetic Republic (Switzerland), Cisalpine Republic (northern Italy), Ligurian Republic (Genoa). Francis II. emperor of Germany. Paul emperor of Russia. Population of the United States, 5,300,000; John Adams, president.



CHAPTER LVII.

BRITISH EMPIRE IN INDIA.

The East India Company was an association of London merchants, who, on the last day of 1600, obtained from Queen Elizabeth a charter granting them exclusive rights for trading in the Indies. They were permitted to establish themselves in Hindostan by the Great Mogul, and also erected strongly-fortified factories on the principal East Indian islands. We have already seen that in the time of Aurungzebe both English and French were engaged in traffic with the natives (p. 355).

During the first hundred years of its existence, the English company was simply commercial, exporting in its

ships the riches of the East,—silk, calicoes, diamonds, drugs, etc. At home it was regarded with jealousy ; and the Stuarts, looking upon it as “their Majesties’ milch-cow,” made it pay roundly for every privilege. It was not until the next century that the company obtained military and political power in Hindostan. An English physician, on a visit to Delhi in 1715, had the good fortune to cure the Mogul emperor of a disease which had baffled the native doctors. In return, the grateful prince conferred upon the East India Company important privileges, and allowed it to purchase additional tracts in Bengal. Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta (see Map, p. 422), were the great centres of its power.

Hostilities with the French.—After the War of the Austrian Succession began in Europe, hostilities broke out between the French and English in India. Madras fell ; and the enterprising governor of Pondicherry, the capital of the French possessions, perceiving the weakness of the Mogul monarchy, aspired to found a French empire on its ruins. The British beheld with dismay his intrigues and triumphs, and by 1750 saw their own power totally eclipsed.

About this time there arose a champion for England in the person of Robert Clive. While employed in the company’s service at Madras, Clive had attempted suicide. But twice his pistol missed fire ; when throwing the weapon aside he abandoned his purpose, convinced that he was reserved for some great end. After the capture of Madras, Clive escaped and obtained a commission in the English army, in which he rapidly attained distinction. He gained several important victories ; and despite the efforts of the French governor, the English acquired a controlling influence in south-eastern Hindostan.

The Black Hole.—The rising fortunes of the English excited the jealousy of Surajah Dowlah (*soo-rah’jă dŏw’lă*), the Nabob of Bengal. In the summer of 1756 he invested

Calcutta, which was compelled to surrender, the little garrison, one hundred and forty-six in number, being assured that not a hair of their heads should be touched. Notwithstanding, they were thrust into a dungeon only eighteen feet square, called the Black Hole. There, through a hot summer night, they endured the most horrible sufferings, trampling each other in their struggles for air. When the day broke, only twenty-three remained alive, most of whom did not long survive.

British East Indian Empire founded. — A cry for vengeance went forth. Clive set out for Bengal at the head



of a small force; Calcutta was taken, and on the field of Plassey (1757) the fate of India was decided. With only 3,000 men, Clive routed the nabob's army of nearly 70,000. Surajah was deposed and afterward slain, the East India

Company placing on his throne a nabob who paid for the honor with millions. Thus the company of merchants taught the Indians that they could fight as well as trade in calico; and while they amassed vast fortunes, they disposed at will of the rich provinces of Hindostan. Clive, who by his victory laid the foundation of the British East Indian Empire, was rewarded with a peerage and the title Baron of Plassey.

War in Mysore.—When during the American Revolution hostilities broke out between England and France, Hyder Ali, the prince of Mysore' in southern Hindostan, took up arms in behalf of the French against the hated English. With an efficient army of 100,000 men led by French officers, Hyder laid waste the country round Madras, and in three weeks reduced the English in southern India to the verge of destruction. Warren Hastings, the governor-general, at once made vigorous preparations for resistance. An army was sent from Bengal, and Hyder was checked in the midst of his victorious career.

After his death in 1782, his son Tippoo Sahib (*sah'hib*) made three attempts against the English, but was unsuccessful in each, and was finally killed in defending his capital Seringapatam' (1799). A great part of Mysore was absorbed by the British.

Their next struggle was with the Mahrattas, whose power was finally overthrown. A war with the Burmese resulted in the extension of the eastern frontier. Difficulties then arose with the Afghans (1839); after the loss of one army, the English took the city of Cabul (*kā-bool'*), rescued their friends who had been detained as prisoners, and then evacuated Afghanistan.

The province of Scinde (*sind*) was annexed to the British East Indian Empire in 1843. At the sight of the first English sail on the Indus, the nobles of that country had predicted its fate. "Alas! Scinde is gone," they said, "the English have seen the river." The warlike Sikhs of the Punjaub (*district of the five rivers*) next took the field; but after a fierce struggle of several years' duration, they were reduced to submission, and at last nearly the whole of Hindostan came under British sway.

Sepoy Mutiny.—There had long been a prophecy among the natives that in the year 1857-'58 the power of the East India Company would be overthrown. About this time

there was introduced into the army a new greased cartridge, from which the Sepoys, or Hindoo soldiers in the English service, were compelled to bite the end before placing it in their rifles. But to taste the fat of bullocks involved a loss of caste, and the report spread through India that the ancient institutions and creed were in danger. Regiment after regiment mutinied ; Europeans at Meerut (see Map, p. 422) and Delhi were butchered, and Cawnpore on the Ganges was the scene of a frightful massacre by the rajah Nana (*nah'nah*) Sahib. Indescribable barbarities were everywhere perpetrated by the Sepoys, the British retaliating at times by blowing the mutineers from the mouths of their cannon.

The English, however, were powerless to put down the revolt, and must have been exterminated had not aid speedily arrived. General Havelock brought re-enforcements from Persia, and cut his way through the insurgents to Lucknow, capital of Oude, where the little garrison had held out for three months against thousands of the enemy. There he was besieged, until Sir Colin Campbell, with five thousand Highlanders, came to his relief. The approach of their friends was announced to the suffering English by a Scotch woman, who, while confined to her bed, suddenly declared that she heard the familiar sounds of bagpipes in the distance. Her words, which were at first attributed to the delirium of fever, proved to be true, and "Jessie of Lucknow" became the heroine of the hour.

The arrival of twenty-three European regiments in the country put a new aspect on affairs ; several brilliant campaigns followed, and the last great battle was fought with the rebels at Gwalior (*gwah'le-or*) in June, 1858. An act passed that same year deprived the East India Company of all its power, vesting its vast territories in the British queen, and transferring its *employés* to the service of the crown.

Indian Superstitions.—Till a comparatively recent period human victims were sacrificed to the Hindoo gods. Not only were infants thrown into the Ganges to be devoured by the crocodiles and sacred sharks, but men and women eagerly laid down their lives at the bloody festivals of their religion. These enormities are now prevented in British India by the government, which otherwise allows the greatest toleration. Christianity has made some progress ; and India, the land where tradition tells us St. Thomas was martyred, now contains over a hundred thousand native Christians.

The institution of caste is rapidly losing ground. A system of public education has been organized, and there are universities at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay.

East India Company.

Act for the government of British India passed 1773 ; the president of the Council of Bengal to be governor-general. Warren Hastings first British governor-general, 1774-'85. A Board of Control established in England, to regulate the company's administration and keep it subject to the general government, 1784. Lord Cornwallis governor-general, 1786-'92. Earl of Mornington (Marquis Wellesley) governor-general, 1798-1805. Lord Canning governor-general, 1855-'62 ; Sepoy revolt, 1857-'59. Possessions of East India Company transferred to the crown, 1858.



CHAPTER LVIII.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The First Presidents.—Under Washington, John Adams, of Massachusetts, who succeeded him in 1797, and Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, author of the Declaration of Independence, who served two terms as president (1801-1809), the United States of America steadily advanced.

The national finances were placed by Washington under the able management of Alexander Hamilton, of New York. The population received large accessions by immigration from Europe, and settlements rapidly spread out in the West.

A war with the Indians in the Ohio Valley, at one time formidable to its sparsely-settled districts, was brought to a successful termination (1794) by "Mad Anthony Wayne," a distinguished general of the Revolution, who threatened the Red Men that, if they ever violated the treaty they then made, he would rise from the grave to punish them.

In 1799 the good and great Washington died, and the following year Congress met for the first time in the city called by his name, which has ever since been the national capital.—Louisiana was purchased from the French in 1803.

A short war with the dey of Tripoli, in the course of which his capital was bombarded (1804), taught the Barbary pirates the necessity of abstaining from depredations on American commerce. But affronts to the American flag hardly less offensive than those of the Tripolitans, were constantly offered by the British. They insisted on what was called "the right of search." United States vessels were stopped on the high-seas, their crews inspected, and often American seamen were forcibly impressed into the British service on the pretext that they were Englishmen. As the British ministry refused to stop these outrages, war was finally declared by the United States, President Madison signing the bill in 1812.

War of 1812.—The early operations of the war were carried on mainly in the North-west. An invasion of Canada by Americans under General Hull having proved a failure, Proctor, the English commander, aided by Tecumseh, a famous Shawnee chief, promptly turned the tables on his opponent, captured Detroit, and with it obtained possession of all Michigan. Another attempt on Canada was

made in October, 1812, by a body of New York militia, but was repulsed by the British.

General Harrison, who had won the confidence of the country by a signal defeat of the Indians at Tippecanoe in what is now western Indiana (1811), was at this critical time intrusted by the authorities at Washington with the chief command in the West. He aimed at the recovery of Detroit; but he was able to accomplish little more than the defence of the Ohio frontier, until Commodore Perry in 1813 brilliantly captured the British fleet on Lake Erie. Following up this achievement, Harrison invaded Canada, and overtook Proctor and Tecumseh on the Thames. The



FALL OF TECUMSEH AT THE BATTLE OF THE THAMES.

Shawnee chief fell before a gallant charge of brave Kentuckians, and a complete victory was gained, resulting in the long-desired vindication of American arms and the recovery of Michigan.—In the meantime a number of glorious triumphs had been achieved at sea by the American navy.

The year 1814 was signalized by further victories on the part of the Americans: at Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, in Canada, over veterans who had fought under Wellington; and at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, over a British land and naval force advancing from the north.

Meanwhile a fleet with fresh troops arrived from England. The city of Washington was taken, and the capitol burned, but Baltimore was successfully defended by the Americans. The fleet then sailed for the south, and after re-enforcements had been received a formidable attack was made on New Orleans. General Jackson, who had been intrusted with the defence of the South-west, from behind his breast-works again and again drove back the British veterans. At last the English general Pakenham, brother-in-law of Wellington, was struck down by a grape-shot, and his army retreated to their ships with heavy loss.

This was the last battle of the War of 1812; before it was fought, a treaty of peace had been concluded at Ghent. After financial affairs had recovered from the deplorable condition in which they were left, the progress of the United States in all that contributes to national strength was rapid beyond parallel.

Interval to the Mexican War.—Prior to the nineteenth century, several attempts had been made to use steam in navigation, but without any practical results. To Robert Fulton, a citizen of the United States, belongs the honor of having built the first successful steamboat (1807). It plied on the Hudson River, between Albany and New

York. With this great invention began a new era in navigation. During Monroe's administration (1817-1825) the Atlantic was for the first time crossed by a steamship (1819), the Savannah, of New York.—Under the same president Florida was acquired by cession from Spain (1819).

John Quincy Adams succeeded to the presidency in 1825; Andrew Jackson, who had saved New Orleans, in 1829; Martin Van Buren, in 1837; and Harrison, the hero of Tippecanoe and the Thames, in 1841. During all this time, if we except a period of commercial depression in 1837, the country enjoyed unbroken prosperity. The population rapidly increased, the resources of the West were developed by internal improvements, and new states were organized.

A war with the Seminoles in Florida, lasting from 1835 to 1839, cost many valuable lives. Since then most of these Indians, as well as other tribes, have been removed to reservations in the West appropriated to their exclusive use.

The death of Harrison in 1841 raised the vice-president John Tyler to the presidential chair. He was succeeded in 1845 by James K. Polk, whose administration was memorable for the Mexican War (see next chapter). At the commencement of this war, the Union contained twenty-nine states, and a population of about twenty millions.

Distinguished Americans.

JOHN MARSHALL, of Virginia (1755-1835), for thirty-four years Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States; author of a "Life of George Washington." DEWITT CLINTON, of New York (1769-1828), a statesman of comprehensive views, the projector of the Erie Canal, completed in 1825, which connects the Great Lakes with the Hudson. HENRY CLAY, of Kentucky (1777-1852)—JOHN C. CALHOUN, of South Carolina (1782-1850)—DANIEL WEBSTER, of Massachusetts (1782-1852)—three great statesmen and orators, the giants of the United States Senate.

CHAPTER LIX.

SPANISH-AMERICAN COUNTRIES.—BRAZIL.

Revolutions in South America.—During the reign of Ferdinand VII., who was restored to the throne of Spain in 1814, most of the Spanish-American colonies secured their independence. These colonies occupied Mexico, Central America, and nearly all of South America except Brazil, and were governed by Spanish viceroys. Brazil, forming not quite half of the South American peninsula, rich in minerals and tropical forests, and watered by the grandest river-system in the world, belonged to Portugal.

As early as 1810, the South American colonies began to revolt against the oppressive government of Spain. Chili and Buenos Ayres (*bo'nos a'riz*) were the first to rise, and both were eventually successful. The name of the latter was changed to the United Provinces of La Plata; and Uruguay and Paraguay, which were previously included in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, became separate states. Discontent with the government subsequently led to civil struggles in La Plata, which resulted in the formation of the present Argentine Republic.

Meanwhile revolutions were agitating the northern colonies also; and Simon Bolivar, "the Liberator of South America," achieved the independence of New Granada, Venezuela, and Quito (*ke'to*). These three were united in one republic, Colombia, with Bolivar as president (1819). Colombia was afterward divided into New Granada (now the United States of Colombia), Venezuela, and Ecuador.

The last of the South American states to take up arms was Peru, which, with the aid of Bolivar and his brave Colombians, succeeded in expelling the Spaniards. Upper Peru, consisting of the southern and south-eastern provinces, before a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres,

was erected into a republic in 1825, and called in honor of its founder, Bolivia.

Bolivar died in 1830, exiled from his native land by his ungrateful countrymen. "If my death," he said, "shall contribute to the cessation of factions, I can go tranquilly to my grave." Bolivar devoted his life and fortune to the high purpose of freeing and uniting all Spanish America, battling with poverty, hardships, and disappointments. From the conflict he retired covered with glory ; and he could truly boast that he had not kept for himself an acre out of the vast territory for which he had been the means of securing the inestimable blessings of freedom.

Since their liberation, these South American countries have presented, generally, a history of assassinations and civil wars ; yet, though anarchy and disorder have materially interfered with their progress, they have for the most part advanced in commerce, wealth, and intelligence. Schools and colleges have sprung up, and the people are at last learning to appreciate the advantages of good order and peace. Particularly is this true of the Argentine Republic, where, though the Spanish Americans are the prevailing race, English and Germans make up a constantly increasing portion of the population.

Central America also became independent of the mother-country, the five Spanish colonies forming themselves into a federal republic which lasted until 1839. Each state has since had a separate republican government.

Mexico.—On the overthrow of Ferdinand VII. by Napoleon, great excitement prevailed throughout Mexico, and in 1810 a rebellion broke out. For several years the patriots struggled almost against hope ; but in 1820, when news arrived that the Spanish people had obtained a liberal constitution from Ferdinand, the desire for freedom revived among the Mexicans. Iturbide (*e-toor'be-da*),

a colonel in the Mexican army, availing himself of the popular excitement, proclaimed the independence of his country (February, 1821), freed it from the Spanish yoke, and was crowned "Emperor of Mexico," July 21, 1822. His reign was short. Santa Anna, supported by other chiefs who favored a republic, proclaimed that form of government in December, and Iturbide was driven into exile. Returning in 1824, he was shot as a traitor.

Owing to a succession of revolutionary disturbances and civil wars, liberty brought few blessings to the Mexicans. The oppressive policy they pursued toward Texas, which was largely settled by American colonists, led to a revolution in that province, and the establishment of its independence in 1836. The annexation of Texas to the United States (1845), and the occupation of certain disputed territory by American troops, brought on a war between Mexico and the United States government in 1846. General Taylor, who was in command of a small force on the frontier, won the battles of Palo Alto (*pah'lo ahl'to*) and Resaca de la Palma (*ra-sah'kah da lah pahl'mah*); then crossing the Rio Grande (*re'o grahn'da*), he stormed Monterey, and at Buena Vista (*bwa'nah vees'tah*) defeated the Mexican general Santa Anna at the head of an army three times the size of his own.

The war thus gloriously begun was carried to a successful termination by General Winfield Scott, who, after taking Vera Cruz (*va'rah kroos*), advanced into the interior, and fought his way to the capital, entering it in triumph (September 14, 1847). The Mexican authorities now consented to peace. By the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (*gwah-dah-loo'pa he-dahl'go*) they recognized the Rio Grande as the southern boundary of Texas, and for the sum of fifteen million dollars relinquished to the United States New Mexico and California (February 2, 1848). It was in this year that the discovery of gold in

California was made, and an unparalleled influx of emigrants to the Pacific coast in consequence began.

Spain under Isabella II.—In 1830, Ferdinand VII. of Spain abolished the Salic law, which had come into force with the Bourbon dynasty, thus securing the succession for his daughter Isabella, born that year, to the exclusion of his brother Don Carlos. On his death in 1833, the child was proclaimed queen with the title of Isabella II., her mother having been appointed regent during her minority. Don Carlos at once forcibly asserted his claim to the throne; but after a bloody civil war, which lasted seven years, the power of the Carlists was broken.

The reign of Isabella was subsequently disturbed by a succession of revolutionary movements and changes of constitution.

Portugal and Brazil.—When Napoleon declared that the House of Braganza had forfeited the Portuguese throne (p. 414), the insane Maria I. was queen, her son John (VI.) acting as regent. Taking his family, this prince sought refuge in Brazil, where he made many salutary reforms, and finally raised the colony to the rank of a kingdom. On the death of his mother in 1816, he was declared king of Portugal, but for a time he remained in Rio Janeiro. Yielding at last to the demands of the Portuguese, John VI. returned to Lisbon, leaving his son Dom Pedro as regent of Brazil.

Soon after (1822), a revolution took place; Brazil was declared an empire independent of Portugal, and the crown was conferred upon Pedro. By the death of his father in 1826, Pedro became king of Portugal also; but he transferred his claim to his young daughter, Dona Maria da Gloria, who, despite an attempt of her uncle Dom Miguel (*me-ghel'*) to supplant her, was finally acknowledged queen in 1834. Insurrection succeeded insurrection, until the death of Maria in 1853.

Pedro I. of Brazil continued on the throne till 1831. In that year he abdicated in favor of his son, Pedro II., the present sovereign. Under him the empire is advancing. A long war with Paraguay was successfully concluded in 1870 by the overthrow of the dictator Lopez. Provision was made for the abolition of slavery in 1871; inducements are offered to emigrants, and means are being taken to develop the immense resources of the country.

The Mexican War.

1846: Hostilities commence. Taylor wins the battle of Palo Alto, May 8th; Resaca de la Palma, May 9th; takes Monterey, September 24th. Americans conquer California. 1847: Taylor defeats the Mexicans at Buena Vista, February 23d. General Scott takes Vera Cruz, March 27th; gains the battle of Cerro Gordo, April 18th; Contreras (*kon-tra'rahs*) and Churubusco (*choo-roo-boos'ko*), August 20th; Molino del Rey (*mo-le'no del ra*), September 8th; Chapultepec (*chah-pool-ta-pek'*), September 13th; enters the city of Mexico in triumph, September 14th. Peace with Mexico proclaimed, July 4, 1848.



CHAPTER LX.

ENGLAND TO THE ACCESSION OF VICTORIA.— GREEK REVOLUTION.

George III.—At the close of the Revolutionary War, the long administration of the younger Pitt, “the consummate debater and unequalled master of sarcasm,” began in England. His policy was strongly opposed to the French Revolution. Austerlitz proved his death-blow. When news of Napoleon’s victory reached him, Pitt pointed to a map of Europe and said, “Roll up that chart, it will not be wanted these ten years.” The great statesman then fell into a stupor, from which he awakened only once, to murmur faintly, “Alas! my country.”

In 1810 George III. became hopelessly insane, and the government passed into the hands of the Prince of Wales as regent. History presents no sadder picture than this demented king, blind and deaf, wandering through his palace, "addressing imaginary parliaments and reviewing fancied troops." Death at length put an end to his sorrows in 1820, after the longest and most eventful reign recorded in English history. Pure, pious, honest in purpose though often mistaken in policy, George III. won the love of his subjects. The Prince of Wales succeeded as George IV.

An important event of the reign of George III. was the abolition of the Irish Parliament, and the legislative union of Ireland and Great Britain.—Captain Cook explored the eastern coast of Australia, and discovered New Caledonia and the Sandwich Islands.

The principal literary men of this period, most of whom flourished also in the succeeding reign, were the poets Shelley, Byron, Southey, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Campbell, Moore, and Scott; the last-named, more noted in prose than in poetry, as the author of the *Waverley Novels*, stands in the front rank of fiction-writers. This was also the age that gave birth to the *Edinburgh* and *Westminster Reviews*, the *London Quarterly*, and *Blackwood's Magazine*, among whose contributors were the most distinguished men of the time.

FASHIONS, IMPROVEMENTS, ETC.—In the early part of the reign of George III., the most extravagant head-dresses were worn by the devotees of fashion; a lady could thus add three feet to her height. Barbers advertised to dress heads so that they would keep for three weeks.



HEAD-DRESS WORN IN 1782.

Vaccination was practised at the close of the century by Doctor Edward Jenner. In spite of the denunciations of his professional brethren and the clergy, the discovery was soon acknowledged to be one of the greatest blessings to mankind.—The London Times, the leading newspaper of England, first appeared under that title in 1788; in 1814, the use of a steam-press greatly increased its printing facilities.

George IV.—Immediately after the accession of George IV., the whole nation was thrown into excitement by the discovery of a plot, known as the Cato Street Conspiracy, to assassinate the king's ministers and overthrow the government. The conspirators, betrayed by one of their own number, were seized in a hay-loft where they were assembled, and the leaders were executed.

George IV. hated his wife, Caroline of Brunswick, whom he had wedded in 1795. The princess was slovenly in her habits, and very indiscreet in her language and actions; on the other side, "the first gentleman in Europe," as George was called, ill kept the vows he had stammered out in drunkenness at the time of his marriage. Accordingly, a separation took place, and Caroline left England. But on her husband's accession, notwithstanding a pension of fifty thousand pounds was offered her if she would stay away, she returned amid the acclamations of the people, who loved her in spite of her follies. Her claim to be crowned queen-consort, however, was disregarded—a disappointment which the unhappy princess did not long survive. She directed to be inscribed on her tomb, "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England."

During the reign of George IV., great suffering among the farmers and working classes led to serious discontent; in Ireland a large force was required to prevent outbreaks of the people. Liberal sentiments began to prevail; and disabilities were removed from the Catholics (1829), main-

ly through the efforts of the eloquent O'Connell, the king yielding only when the country was threatened with civil war.

George IV. was obstinate, extravagant, and profligate. It is said that the money he squandered in his youth would have supported a manufacturing town. For coats alone he spent ten thousand pounds a year. One day he would treat his friends in the most affectionate manner, and the next refuse to recognize them. He even dismissed Beau Brummel, the companion who brought tears to his eyes by finding fault with the cut of his clothes; and long afterward, when Brummel offered the king his snuff-box, George coolly helped himself to a pinch and then moved on without noticing the old favorite.

This reign is memorable for the founding of London University and King's College, the commencement of the tunnel under the Thames, and the establishment of settlements in Australia.

William IV.—On the death of George IV. in 1830, his brother William became monarch of Great Britain and Ireland. He was called "the Sailor King," for his life had been spent in the naval service. The greatest event of his reign was the passage of the Reform Bill, introduced by Lord John Russell, which extended the right of suffrage and made a new and fairer distribution of representatives in the House of Commons (1832). Under the provisions of this act, every industrious man in the kingdom could hope to attain the privilege of voting. Another important measure was the emancipation of negro slaves throughout the British colonies, twenty million pounds sterling being appropriated to reimburse the owners.

In William's reign, the first railroad in the country, from Liverpool to Manchester, was opened. On his death in 1837 without male heirs, the crown fell to his niece Victoria, then only eighteen years of age. Hanover and

Great Britain were now separated, for in the former the Salic law was in force. Victoria's uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, became king of Hanover.

The Greek Revolution.—After the conquest of Mohammed II. (p. 257), Greece remained a part of the Turkish



SCENE NEAR TRIPOLITZA.—MODERN GREEKS.

Empire for nearly four hundred years, suffering more or less from the rapacity and oppression of its masters. About the beginning of the nineteenth century the spirit of patriotism revived, and a secret association was formed for the purpose of re-establishing Grecian independence. Ypsilanti raised the standard of revolt in the northern

provinces, but the "Sacred Battalion" which he commanded was cut to pieces (1821).

Notwithstanding this disaster, insurrections broke out in all parts of Greece, and the modern Hellenes performed deeds worthy of their heroic ancestors. The Turks endeavored to suppress the movement with remorseless severity. The patriarch of Constantinople they hanged on Easter Sunday at the gate of his palace; and his archbishops, together with thousands of Greeks, were massacred in the capital. Similar outrages were committed throughout the provinces. The Janizaries of Salonika (*sah-lo-ne'kah*), though the battlements of that city were garnished with heads, threatened to revolt because they were not allowed to exterminate the Christians.

Nor were the Greeks backward in retaliating. When Tripolitza, capital of the Morea, fell into their hands, several thousands of the Moslems were slain. Nothing remained of the city but a ruin, the very nails having been extracted from the buildings. In 1822 the beautiful island of Scio was laid waste by the Ottomans. The following year, the Suliote patriot, Marco Bozzaris, surprised the Turks in a night attack, cut his way into the midst of their camp, and fell as his comrades raised the cry of victory. The insurgents, on the whole, had the advantage until 1825, when the sultan obtained aid from the pasha of Egypt.

Meanwhile a general sympathy for the Greeks was awakened among the nations of Christendom; unions called Philhellenic (*friendly to Greece*) were formed, to furnish them with money and supplies; and at last the barbarity of the Egyptians, particularly as exhibited at the fall of Missolonghi on the western coast, led Russia, England, and France, to interfere in the struggle. In 1827 their combined fleets stood into the Bay of Navarino (*nah-vah-re'no*), when a battle at once began which resulted in the destruction of the Turkish and Egyptian squadrons.

But not until 1829, when a Russian army threatened the Ottoman capital, would the Porte recognize Greece as an independent kingdom. The second son of King Louis of Bavaria was selected to fill the throne (1832), with the title of Otho I.

English Sovereigns: House of Hanover.

George I., 1714.	George IV., 1820.
George II., 1727.	William IV., 1830.
George III., 1760.	Victoria, 1837.

CHAPTER LXI.

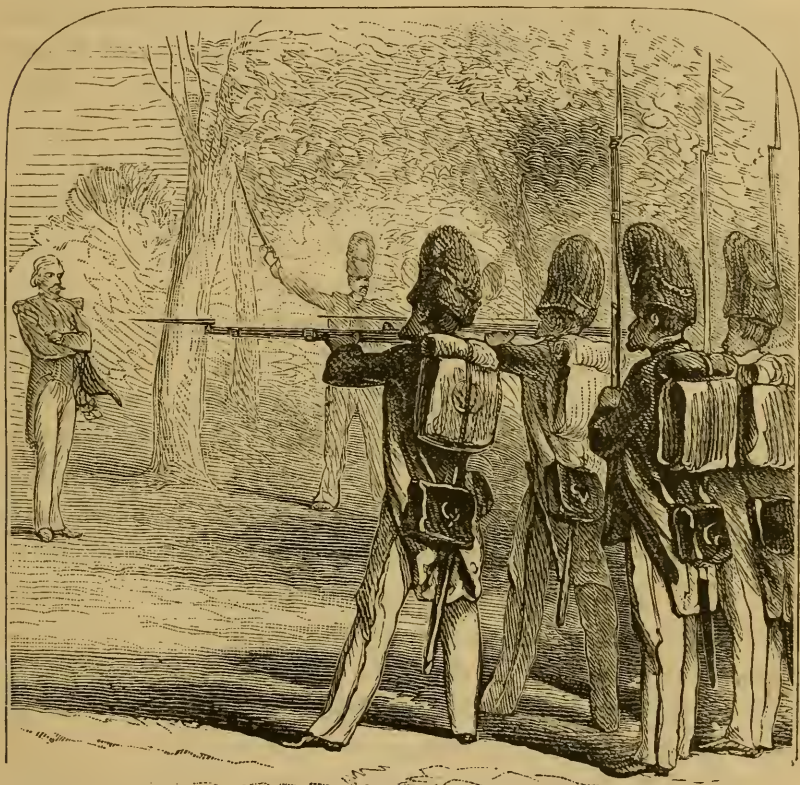
*FRANCE FROM 1815 TO 1830.—BELGIAN AND
POLISH REVOLUTIONS.*

Louis XVIII.—With the restoration of Louis XVIII. to the throne of the Bourbons, a reaction began. The ultra-royalists, distinguished as “White Jacobins,” coming into power, inflicted a bloody revenge on the Bonapartists and republicans. Even the brave Ney was condemned to death for his desertion to Napoleon. He gave the word of command to the soldiers drawn up to shoot him; pointing to his heart, he cried, “Comrades, fire here!” and fell dead pierced by ten balls. The king on his accession had granted the people a charter of liberties, and he now sought to restrain the violence of the monarchical party—his over-zealous supporters.

The position of Louis XVIII. was thus a most difficult one to fill; but his good judgment, moderation, and benevolence, carried him safely through the many troubles of his reign. On his death-bed (1824) he said to his brother Charles, who was about to succeed him: “I have

tacked between parties like Henry IV., but unlike him I die in my bed. Do as I have done, and your reign will end in peace.”

The Holy Alliance.—About the time of the restoration, the Holy Alliance was formed by the emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia, who pledged



EXECUTION OF MARSHAL NEY.

themselves to a permanent union in the bonds of brotherly love, and a mutual support for the maintenance of peace, justice, and religion. Most of the European powers acceded to this treaty, but they soon found that it was only a pretence for perpetuating despotism.

It was at the instigation of the Holy Alliance that a French army of 100,000 men was sent into Spain, to put down the patriots who had wrested from the false and cruel Ferdinand VII. a liberal constitution. Similar revolutions in Italy, where Austrian influence was predominant, were also suppressed by the Holy Alliance.

Charles X.—During the French Revolution, this prince, the last of the Bourbons, went about Europe soliciting aid to re-establish monarchy in France. Catharine of Russia presented him a sword inscribed, "Given by God for the king;" but the weapon was useless in the hands of Charles, who proved himself a better "performer with the knife and fork." He lacked the courage to land in La Vendée, though he was backed by a British force and 80,000 royalists awaited his arrival to fly to arms.

When he became king, the most arbitrary measures were adopted; and though the people were at first charmed with his majestic bearing and warm-hearted ways, they soon perceived that he was the enemy of their liberties. The deluded king hoped to divert the public mind from home matters by military triumphs abroad. Aid was sent to Greece, the city of Algiers was taken—but all to no purpose. The government grew more and more unpopular; until finally, when the liberty of the press was destroyed and the law of election changed, the people rose in their might (July, 1830), overpowered the royal troops, and Charles, after abdicating, went into exile.

Some clamored for a republic; but Lafayette, believing that France was not yet prepared for a democratic government, advocated a constitutional monarchy. The crown was conferred on the Duke of Orleans, son of Philip Equality; he swore to maintain the constitutional charter, and was hailed as Louis Philippe I., *King of the French*.

Belgian Revolution.—After Napoleon's overthrow, the

Belgian provinces were annexed to Holland by the Congress of Vienna, and Prince William of Orange-Nassau became sovereign of this new *Kingdom of the Netherlands*. The Belgians, who were Roman Catholics, and also differed from the Dutch in language and manners, were averse to this union of the long-separated provinces ; and their discontent was aggravated by the tyrannical government of the Hollanders.

News of the successful revolution at Paris created the wildest excitement in Belgium ; and in August, 1830, roused to action by the music of the grand opera, the people of Brussels broke out in insurrection. Their example was quickly followed ; a provisional government was formed, and the independence of Belgium proclaimed. King William took up arms to suppress the rebels, but without success ; and at length a conference of the great powers, held at London, recognized Belgium as a separate state and forbade further hostilities.

The first king of Belgium was Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. No sooner was he crowned than the Dutch recommenced the war, but England and France interfered and put an end to the struggle. Since the separation, both countries have flourished.

Insurrection in Poland.—The Congress of Vienna rearranged the divisions of Poland (see Map, p. 386). The district of Cracow was erected into a free republic ; while the czar Alexander, to whom fell the greater part of the duchy of Warsaw, formed his new acquisitions into the *Kingdom of Poland*, and appointed his brother Constantine its military governor. The emperor himself was king of the new state, and solemnly guaranteed its independence.

There was little friendship, however, between the people and their Russian rulers. During the reign of Nicholas, Alexander's successor, excited by the tyranny of Constan-

tine and encouraged by the success of the French and Belgians, the Poles rose against their oppressors (1830). But valuable time was wasted in negotiations, and the aristocracy lost the support of the great body of peasants by denying them the privileges of liberty. Despite the unexampled bravery of the Polish patriots, many of whom, for want of better weapons, were armed only with scythes, the Russians triumphed. Depopulated by war and disease, her soldiers torn from the arms of their families by impressment in the Russian armies, or doomed to the mines of Siberia, Poland has had cause long to remember her fruitless uprising.

Every attempt has since been made to denationalize the Poles; and the Republic of Cracow, in defiance of all principles of justice, was forcibly annexed to Austria in 1846.

Kings of France: House of Bourbon.

Henry IV., of Navarre, .	1589.	Republic, .	1792-1795.
Louis XIII., . . .	1610.	Directory, .	1795-1799.
Louis XIV., . . .	1643.	Consulate, .	1799-1804.
Louis XV., . . .	1715.	Empire, . . .	1804-1814.
Louis XVI., . . .	1774.	Louis XVIII., . . .	1814.
Revolution, . . .	1792.	Charles X., . . .	1824.
Louis XVII. died in		Louis Philippe (House	
prison, .	1795.	of Orleans), . . .	1830.



CHAPTER LXII.

BEGINNING OF VICTORIA'S REIGN.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1848.

Queen Victoria was crowned in Westminster Abbey in 1838, and in 1840 she gave her hand to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. A rebellion in Canada was the first

event that disturbed her reign ; but this was put down, and the causes of dissatisfaction were as far as possible removed. Difficulties then arose with China. In the face of a prohibition from the Chinese government, the English merchants continued to import opium into the empire, as the trade in the drug was extremely profitable. This illicit commerce led to a war between the Chinese authorities and the British, resulting in the success of the latter and the opening of five great ports.

The condition of England, meanwhile, was far from quiet. The crops failed; and the distress occasioned thereby was aggravated by the *Corn Laws*, which laid a burdensome duty on imported grain. Popular discontent was loudly expressed, trades-unions sprung up, and a league was formed in 1839 to obtain the repeal of the Corn Laws. This was violently opposed ; but in 1841, a conservative ministry came into power, at the head of which was Sir Robert Peel, an advocate of reform. Many duties were now removed and others reduced, yet the public distress continued. In Wales the numerous tolls exacted drew so heavily on the earnings of the people that a body of rioters went through the country, destroying the toll-gates under cover of night. They were led by a man dressed in women's clothes, and were known as "Rebecca and her daughters." In Ireland, also, a bitter feeling was excited against the government by the speeches of O'Connell ; but here, as in Wales, the disturbances were effectually quelled.

It was not until January, 1846, when, by reason of the scanty grain-harvest and the failure of the potato-crop in Ireland, famine stared the country in the face, that the duty on corn was removed—Sir Robert Peel introducing the bill for that purpose. Even this concession, however, did not satisfy the discontented masses. A *Chartist* demonstration, as it was called, took place in London in 1848, for the purpose of procuring certain constitutional

changes embodied in a bill of rights known as the People's Charter; but the extraordinary precautions taken by the government were successful in preserving the peace.

The beginning of Victoria's reign is remarkable for the establishment of the penny postage system.—In the spring of 1845, Sir John Franklin, the celebrated explorer, sailed with the *Erebus* and *Terror* in search of a north-west passage. Though he never returned, it appears that by reaching from the Atlantic a point which had been attained by explorers from the Pacific, he virtually made the long-sought discovery.—In 1851 gold was found in Australia; emigrants hurried to “the diggings,” and Australia rapidly developed into a rich and flourishing country.

Revolution in France.—Louis Philippe, whom we left upon the throne of France (p. 442), was surrounded by difficulties. Legitimists, Bonapartists, and republicans, were his opponents, and the rivalries of his ministers kept France in a state of agitation. Several attempts were made to assassinate him; and Louis Napoleon, son of Louis Bonaparte (the former king of Holland), made two efforts to excite a revolution against the government. “I shall be emperor before I die,” he said; “I will govern France, and then perish with a bullet in my brain.”

In 1840, a new administration was formed, Guizot (*ghe-zo'*) being the ruling spirit in the cabinet. In that year the remains of the great Napoleon were brought to Paris and buried beneath the dome of the Invalides. Not long after, France was plunged in grief by the death of the Duke of Orleans, heir to the crown, who possessed the love and confidence of the whole nation.

With the exception of a war in Algeria, which the French succeeded in permanently annexing after a long struggle with the young emir Abd-el-Kader (*ahbd-el-kah'-der*), the Guizot administration was peaceful, for “Peace at any price” was the motto of the king. But while friend-

ly and pacific feeling characterized its foreign relations, the government at home became objectionable. The "citizen king" broke the pledge he had given to his countrymen,—to support constitutional liberty, and suddenly his ears were greeted with the cry of reform. Political banquets came in vogue, and the suppression of one of these in Paris on Washington's birthday, 1848, brought on a revolution. The following morning, crowds of ill-looking creatures swarmed in the streets; barricades were hastily thrown up, the troops were overpowered, and at last Louis Philippe, hearing the infuriated people shouting "A republic!" at the very gates of the Tuileries, knew that his reign was over. On the 24th of February he abdicated, and under an assumed name sought safety in England.

It was in this trying hour that the widowed Duchess of Orleans, unterrified by the fury of the mob and the weapons pointed at her breast, brought her young son into the Assembly, and there eloquently urged his claim to the crown. But a voice from the tribune cried, "Too late!" A provisional government was instituted. On the following day the poet Lamartine (*lah-mar-teen'*), one of its members, achieved the greatest triumph of his eloquence by appeasing the maddened Commune and thus saving France from another reign of terror.

Establishment of the Second Empire.—The new government did not meet the expectations of the lower orders. They still had to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, whereas they seem to have looked for a golden age of exemption from all labor. In response to their demands for lighter work and better pay, national workshops were established, where employment was given to thousands, and many who did not labor were paid. But this system proved ruinous, and when the authorities were obliged to close the factories, the Communists once more filled the

streets of Paris and cried, "Down with the government!" After a desperate conflict of several days, they were suppressed by General Cavaignac (*kah-ven-yahk'*). A republic was then formed, an election for president was held, and Louis Napoleon received a large majority of votes—due, no doubt, to the associations connected with his name.

The new president was regarded with distrust by most of the honest republican leaders, and it soon became evident that at the expiration of his term the country would again be plunged in civil strife. But Louis Napoleon anticipated his enemies by his famous *coup d'état* (December 2, 1851). During the preceding night, Paris was filled with soldiers; before dawn those whom he had cause to fear were placed under arrest, and it was declared that the Assembly was dissolved. The president then secured his re-election for ten years; and in November, 1852, the republic was quietly metamorphosed into an empire, its chief magistrate becoming "Napoleon III.,"* Emperor of the French."

Revolutions in the German States.—The year 1848 is an eventful one in the history of Germany.—After the Napoleonic wars, thirty-nine of the German states united in forming a new confederation, but the general diet in which they were represented was controlled by Austria. At this time the people were enthusiastic for the establishment of German unity and freedom; instead of which, the ruling princes tightened the reins of despotism and strove to check the progressive spirit of the age.

But oppression only begat a more intense desire for liberty. After the French Revolution of 1830, outbreaks occurred in several of the states. During Louis Philippe's reign, the death of Francis made his son Ferdinand emperor of Austria (1835), and Frederick William IV. as-

* The son of Napoleon I. (deceased in 1832) was recognized as Napoleon II.

cended the throne of Prussia (1840). The former was a man of weak character, and his empire was ruled by Prince Metternich, the declared enemy of liberal principles. The Prussian, at his accession, made fair promises, and really did much for the people, but he would not grant them a constitution ; and consequently in Prussia, as in the other German states, opposition to the government began to assume a dangerous aspect.

The downfall of the Orleans dynasty in France was the spark that fired the train. Everywhere the people rose in behalf of their rights, demanding "freedom of speech, liberty of the press, and a constitutional government." The princes of many of the smaller states, powerless to resist, yielded at once to the popular movement ; but in Prussia and Austria, the people did not carry their point without a struggle. After a conflict in the streets of Berlin between the soldiers and citizens, in which several were killed, the king made the concessions required and declared himself "leader of the movement for German unity."

The people of Vienna drove Metternich into exile, and obtained from the emperor the privileges they demanded. But they abused their suddenly-acquired liberty. License reigned in the capital, law and order were at an end, and Ferdinand was finally obliged to seek safety in flight. Rebellions also occurred in other parts of the empire, and the Austrian monarchy was brought to the very brink of destruction.

Hungarian Revolution.—The most formidable of these was the uprising of the Hungarians, or Magyars, long outraged by the policy of the government. The eloquent Kossuth (*kosh-shoot'*) was the soul of the revolution, and Görgey (*gör'ghi*), with the Poles Bem and Dembinski, led the armies of the patriots. Encouraged by Austria, the ban of Croatia took the field against the Hungarians ; and when Vienna, which had again revolted, this time in favor

of the Magyar revolutionists, was besieged by Austrian troops, he repulsed Kossuth, who was marching to its relief. Then he joined the Austrians, and the allied forces took the capital by storm.

Austrians and Croatsians were afterward repeatedly defeated by the Hungarians, and it was not until Russia interfered that this brave people was subdued. Görgey surrendered his army in 1849. Kossuth escaped into Turkey, and was detained there as a prisoner till 1851, when he was released through the intervention of the United States and England. The last Hungarian fortress that surrendered was Comorn, associated in history with the barbarities of the Austrian general Haynau (*hi'nöw*), whose frightful cruelty during this war secured for him the appellation of *Hungary's Hangman*.

Revolutions in Italy.—The Italian republicans were also encouraged by the overthrow of despotism in France. Pius IX., “the constitutional pope,” who had been chosen in 1846, by his liberal policy began a movement which was soon beyond his control. The demands of the people increased with his indulgence, and at last his minister was murdered and he fled from the capital. Rome was declared a republic (February, 1849). Mazzini (*maht-se'ne*) was made the first of the *triumvirs* who governed the city; and the hero Garibaldi bravely defended it, but could not save it from the French, who took it in July. The pope came back as an absolute ruler, and for seven years Rome was kept under martial law.

In 1848 the Austrians were driven out of Venice and Milan, Charles Albert of Sardinia declared war against them, and nearly all northern Italy was for a time freed from their yoke. But the Austrian marshal Radetzky soon regained his ground, and the king of Sardinia consented to a truce. In the spring of 1849 the latter resumed the war; but in a four days' campaign the old Ra-

detzky overthrew the hopes of the patriots, and Austria again became supreme. Charles Albert resigned the sceptre to Victor Emmanuel, his son. This prince, undaunted by the disasters that had befallen his father, though obliged for the time to yield to them, pledged his sword to the same cause—the freedom and glory of Italy.

Literary and Scientific Men.

ENGLAND.—The scientists Sir David Brewster, Faraday, and Tyndall, noted respectively for their researches in optics, electro-magnetism, and the phenomena of heat. Macaulay and Carlyle; the former, author of a "History of England," abounding in the richest ornaments of rhetoric—the latter, of various historical works and essays, marked by original thought but an unnatural style. Sir William Hamilton, distinguished in metaphysics and philosophy, and John Stuart Mill, in logic and political economy. The poet-laureate Tennyson. The novelists Bulwer, Thackeray, and Dickens.

FRANCE.—The scientists Cuvier (*kü-ve-a'*), Arago, and Leverrier (*lch-va-re-a'*); the first, a great zoölogist, founder of the science of comparative anatomy; the last two, astronomers. Thiers (*te-ayr'*), who wrote the history of the Revolution, Consulate, and Empire. The popular songwriter Béranger (*ba-ron^g-zha'*). Victor Hugo, author of odes, ballads, dramas, and novels.

GERMANY.—Of many scholars and writers later than those named on page 387, may be mentioned the historians Heeren (1760–1842), and Niebuhr (1776–1831), who flourished in the early part of the century—Mommсен (1817–1877)—and Neander, an eminent church-historian (1789–1850). Karl Ritter, the great geographer. The poets Uhland and Heine (*hi'neh*). Baron Liebig, a great discoverer in the field of organic chemistry. The illustrious naturalist Humboldt, author of various scientific treatises, and particularly of "Kosmos: a Physical Description of the Universe," written when he was more than seventy-four years old. Among musical composers, Mendelssohn and Meyerbeer.

DENMARK produced during this period one of the most quaint, imaginative, and charming of fiction-writers, in Hans Christian Andersen, born in 1805, died August, 1875. His "Wonder-Stories" have made his name a household word among the little folk, and have found delighted readers even in children of a larger growth.

CHAPTER LXIII.

THE CRIMEAN WAR (1854-1856).

Russian Aggressions upon Turkey.—In the hope of aggrandizing herself at the expense of the Ottoman Porte, Russia had long sought an occasion of war with Turkey. The czar Nicholas in 1853 suggested a division of the empire between himself and England, offering Egypt and the island of Candia to the latter—a proposal which the British government did not entertain.

A pretext, however, was not long wanting for carrying out the cherished scheme. On the refusal by the Porte of the czar's demand to be recognized as Protector of the

Greek Christians under Ottoman rule—complicity with which would have compromised the independence of Turkey—80,000 Russian troops crossed the Pruth, and occupied the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia (see Map, p. 416). War was consequently



declared by the Porte, and the campaign of the Danube, under the conduct of Omar Pasha, was a glorious one for the Ottoman arms.

The European powers at first stood aloof, although England had encouraged the Turkish government in resisting the arrogance of Russia; but the unwarranted destruction of an Ottoman fleet by the Russians off Sin'o-pe provoked the interference of England and France early in 1854, to prevent the dismemberment of Turkey and pre-

serve the balance of power in Europe. After some preliminary movements, the allied army disembarked in September a few miles below Eupatoria in the Crimea (see Map), defeated the Russian prince Menzikoff on the banks of the Alma, and pushing southward invested the strong fortress of Sebastopol.

Battle of Balaklava.—The siege had not progressed many days before the Russians sallied from their works to attack the enemy at Balaklava (*bal-ă-klah'vah*). A large force of the assailants was gallantly charged and thrown into confusion by the British dragoons; but through a mistake, the Light Brigade, only 600 strong, was ordered forward against the whole Russian army, which had formed anew with artillery in front and flank.

The aide-de-camp Nolan, who had conveyed the instructions of Lord Raglan, the commander-in-chief, to the lieutenant-general, saw the error, and, spurring in front of the charging horsemen, sought by gesture and voice to save them from destruction. While he was in the act of waving his sword, a fragment from a Russian shell pierced his heart; but the arm remained uplifted, the body sat erect in the saddle, and as his horse galloped back upon the advancing column, an unearthly cry burst from the lifeless lips—as if a warning to his comrades of the terrible doom that awaited them. Yet on they plunged, through thick banks of smoke, swept by a tornado of canister and grape, up to the very mouths of the cannon, sabred the gunners, scattered the Russian infantry,—then turned, a mere handful, to fight their way back through a mass of lancers. Only 150 succeeded in reaching their friends.

The Russians were checked at Balaklava. Ten days later (November 5th), 50,000 of them attacked the English position at Inkerman, where, after an obstinate battle of six hours with 8,000 British and a French division 6,000 strong, they were finally repulsed. Soon after this, winter

set in ; and cold, want, and disease, proved more fatal to the besieging army than the Russian sword. The tale of their sufferings brought clothing and supplies of all kinds to the camp ; while the sick and wounded were attended in the hospital by a corps of volunteer nurses, at the head of whom was an English lady, Florence Nightingale.

Fall of Sebastopol.—In the beginning of the new year, Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia sent an army to support the allies. As the spring wore on, the siege was more vigorously prosecuted ; repeated sorties of the Russians were repulsed, their last effort to disperse the enemy being defeated by the French and Sardinians (August 16, 1855). On the 8th of September, after three days' bombardment, the final assault was made. The strong works of the Malakhoff and the Redan were stormed ; and the Russians, after exploding their magazines, sinking their ships and frigates, and firing the town, evacuated Sebastopol. The allies took possession of the ruins, and completed the dismantling of the post by destroying the arsenals, docks, and warehouses.

Russia was now anxious for peace. Negotiations were accordingly begun, which resulted in the conclusion of a treaty at Paris in the spring of 1856. The integrity of Turkey was guaranteed ; the Black Sea was opened to the mercantile vessels of all nations, but closed to ships of war. The Danubian principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia (Roumania) remained only nominally subject to Turkey, full liberty of worship and legislation being secured to them ; in 1858 they were granted the privilege of electing a *Hospodar*, or governor, for life. On the election of Prince Milan in 1868, Servia also became virtually independent, though under the suzerainty of the Porte.

Meanwhile Nicholas of Russia died (March 2, 1855). His son and successor, Alexander II., was crowned czar in the autumn of 1856. The condition of the Russian people

has since been ameliorated by the encouragement of commerce and internal industry, improvements in public education, and the abolition of serfdom. A revolt of the Poles, however, took place in 1863, which was put down with the usual severity, 85,000 of this unfortunate people being transported to Siberia. The Russian government has since felt it expedient to emancipate the Polish peasants and adopt various other liberal measures.

Checked in her career of aggrandizement in Europe, and abandoning her foothold in America by the sale of Alaska to the United States in 1867, Russia has since steadily pursued her plan of annexation in Asia. Her empire, which was extended on the east beyond the Amoor by the acquisition of a large tract from China in 1858, has also approached the frontiers of British India, absorbing portions of the khanates of Khiva (*ke'vah*), Bokhara, and Khokan, east of the Caspian Sea. The khan of Khiva at first successfully resisted the Russian arms; but in 1873 he consented to a peace which not only cost him a large indemnity and many square miles of territory, but also provided for the discontinuance of the slave-trade that had long flourished in his dominions.

The Russian government is taking measures to consolidate its vast empire, particularly by an improved system of public instruction and the introduction of the Russian tongue in all parts of its dominions. But the obstacles in the way of success have so far proved insurmountable.

Sovereigns of Russia.

Peter I., the Great,	1682.	Peter III.,	1762.
Catharine I.,	1725.	Catharine II.,	1762.
Peter II.,	1727.	Paul,	1796.
Anna,	1730.	Alexander I.,	1801.
Ivan VI.,	1740.	Nicholas,	1825.
Elizabeth Petrovna,	1741.	Alexander II.,	1855.

CHAPTER LXIV.

RECENT HISTORY.

Civil War in the United States.—For his services in the Mexican War, General Taylor was rewarded with the presidency of the United States in 1849, but he enjoyed the honor for little more than a year. By his death his office fell to the vice-president, Millard Fillmore, of New York. During part of Fillmore's term, Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, one of the most distinguished orators of America, served as Secretary of State.

Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, succeeded to the presidency in 1853, and James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, in 1857. The administrations of both were disturbed by virulent discussions on the subject of slavery, which existed in the South, but to the extension of which, as new states were formed, many in the North were opposed.

When, in 1860, Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, a republican, was chosen president, the Southern leaders, alleging that he was a sectional candidate, declared secession from the Union to be the only safeguard against the anticipated aggressions of the Federal government. Seven of the thirty-three states passed ordinances of secession, formed a new union under the title of "the Confederate States of America" (February, 1861), and elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, their president. Four more states joined the Confederacy shortly afterward, and in November, 1861, two others were admitted.

All efforts for a peaceable settlement of difficulties having failed, and the Federal government having attempted to send supplies to one of its posts in Charleston harbor, the Confederates, who had assembled a large force in the neighborhood, opened fire upon the fort, April 12, 1861. Thus began a destructive four-year civil war.

The Federal government at first met with some severe reverses, commencing with the disastrous defeat of Bull Run (July 21, 1861) ; but calling fresh men from time to time into the field, building iron-clad gun-boats, mortar-boats, and monitors, to co-operate by water, and maintaining a strict blockade of the southern coast, it gradually gained ground, after severe struggles, in most of the states in which military operations were carried on. Particularly was this the case in the South-west, New Orleans being taken in April, 1862, and the Mississippi being opened by the capture of Vicksburg and Port Hudson in July, 1863.

All this time, however, Richmond, the Confederate capital, set the Union forces at defiance. Several attempts made to reach it resulted only in a heavy loss of men, and four times the Potomac was crossed by invading Confederate armies from Virginia. Two of these incursions assumed a formidable aspect, but General Lee, the Confederate commander, was defeated in the first at Antietam, Maryland (September 17, 1862), and in the second at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania (July 1-3, 1863), and each time obliged to fall back.

At length (March 3, 1864) the Federal authorities elevated General Grant, who had distinguished himself in various actions, to the rank of Lieutenant-General. New forces were raised, and after a series of bloody battles the Union army succeeded in reaching the neighborhood of Richmond, and invested Petersburg, 22 miles south of that capital. The attack was vigorously pushed, and as bravely withstood ; but at last important advantages gained by the besieging force, as well as a succession of victories won by the Union generals, Sherman in Georgia, and Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia, showed General Lee that to protract his defence would be but a useless sacrifice of life. He surrendered April 9, 1865, and with this event the last hope of the Confederacy expired.

The other Confederate armies were either surrendered or disbanded.

On January 1, 1863, slavery, the cause of the war, was abolished by President Lincoln, in accordance with authority vested in him by Congress. Mr. Lincoln was re-elected to the presidency in 1864; but five days after Lee's surrender, to the horror of both Northern and Southern men, he was assassinated in the theatre at Washington by a violent sympathizer with the South. His death made Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, president till 1869.

Napoleon III. took advantage of the civil war in the United States to interfere in the affairs of Mexico. Sending over an army to that country, ostensibly to obtain reparation for losses sustained by its French residents, he defeated the Liberals in several engagements, occupied the capital (1863), overthrew the government, established an empire, and offered the crown to Maximilian of Austria, who unwisely accepted it. The United States, refusing to acknowledge Maximilian as emperor, informed Napoleon that no European power would be permitted to establish a monarchy in North America; and the French emperor thought it prudent to withdraw his army in 1867. Maximilian, unable to maintain himself against the Liberals, was taken and shot; and the republic was re-established.

In England much distress was occasioned in the manufacturing districts, during the civil war in America, by the want of a supply of cotton. Many of the people sympathized with the South, and desired that the government should recognize and assist the Confederacy; but the prime minister, Lord Palmerston, took a conservative course, and peace was maintained. Great dissatisfaction was felt in the United States because the Confederates were allowed to fit out cruisers in the nominally neutral ports of England. From one of these, the *Alabama*, American merchantmen suffered severely, till she was de-

stroyed by the Kearsarge in June, 1864. After the war, a claim for damages was made on the British government. It was referred to arbitration, and an award of \$15,500,000 was made to the United States.

In recognition of his military services General Grant was elected president in 1868, and in 1872 he was rechosen. The seceded states were gradually reconstructed, and in 1871 all were once more represented in Congress. In 1877, Rutherford B. Hayes became president.

The civil strife, demoralizing the tone, unsettling the industries, and wasting the resources of the nation, was of course followed by a train of evils, of which financial and business difficulties were not the least. From these the country has now (1879) begun to recover. Sectional bitterness has in a great measure passed away; the fatal cause of discord between North and South has been removed; and, with a land of inexhaustible resources, it is believed that the people need time alone to bring back a new era of prosperity and brotherly love.

Cuban Insurrection.—In 1868, the people of Cuba, long impatient under the yoke of Spain, attempted to throw it off. The successive Spanish governments (monarchical, republican, and again monarchical) tried in vain for several years to reduce the island to submission; not until rendered defenceless by hardships and reverses did the insurgents lay down their arms and return to their allegiance (1878).

In October, 1873, great excitement was produced in the United States (whose people warmly sympathized with the Cuban patriots) by the announcement that the *Virginius*, a vessel sailing under the American flag, had been seized on the high-seas by a Spanish man-of-war, on the charge that it was bound for the island with aid for the insurgents. A number of its passengers were taken off and shot. For a time war with Spain was imminent, but after some delay the difficulty was peaceably settled.

Dominion of Canada.—With the approval of the mother-country, the colonies of British America, the island of Newfoundland alone excepted, were in 1867 united in what is known as “the Dominion of Canada.” Each of the seven provinces has its own legislature to regulate its local affairs, while the interests of the whole are under the control of a governor-general and a parliament in which all are represented. The formation of this union has been attended with the best results ; it has consolidated the strength of the colonies and led to important internal improvements.

Austro-Sardinian War.—The spirit of nationality which was developing in Italy, together with the growing friendship between France and Sardinia, whose king Victor Emmanuel II. was the supporter of liberal institutions in the peninsula, brought on a war in 1859 between those two powers and Austria. Hoping to crush the Sardinians before they could receive aid from France, Austria dispatched an army across the Ticino (*te-che'no*) ; but it was driven back, and routed near Magenta (see Map, p. 416) by the combined French and Sardinian forces. Garibaldi also, with his “*Hunters of the Alps*,” several times defeated the Austrians, who, after a second great reverse at Solferino, deemed it best to make peace. Their feeling in this respect was shared by the French emperor, who, marking the threatening aspect of Germany, reluctantly paused in his career of triumph. Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia in consideration of about forty-two million dollars. As a compensation for her services during the war, France afterward received Nice and Savoy from Sardinia.

Founding of the Italian Kingdom.—The desire of the Italian patriots was a united Italy ; but the southern part of the country was still under the Bourbon king of Naples, Francis II. Its liberation was effected by Garibaldi, who invaded Sicily in 1860 with a small force of volunteers,

took Palermo and Messina, and then recrossing to the main-land entered Naples on September 7th amid the enthusiastic shouts of the people, Francis II. having previously withdrawn from the city. Garibaldi now resigned his power into the hands of the Sardinian king, and retired to his farm on the island of Caprera (*kah-pra'rah*).

Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed "King of Italy" in 1861 by the first Italian Parliament, the Two Sicilies having been previously annexed to his kingdom in accordance with the vote of the people. All Italy, except Venetia in the north-east and a portion of the Papal States, was now united under his sceptre. Count Cavour, the Italian prime minister, whose statesmanship had been largely instrumental in bringing about this great result, barely lived to witness the success of his efforts.

War in Schleswig-Holstein.—A difficulty between Denmark and her dependencies, the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which grew out of a question of succession, led to a European war in 1864. The German Confederate Diet found a pretext for interfering, and sent an armed force into Holstein to await the course of events. But Prussia and Austria, differing from the diet on questions which arose with reference to Schleswig, took the field against the Danes. The Austro-Prussian army gained many important advantages, and reduced Denmark to such extremities that she consented to relinquish Schleswig and Holstein to Austria and Prussia (October 30, 1864).

Seven Weeks' War.—Francis Joseph had succeeded his uncle Ferdinand I. on the throne of Austria in 1848, and William I. had become king of Prussia in 1861. Troubles soon arose between these two powers with respect to the duchies, and this petty dispute was made the occasion of a war, the real cause of which is to be found in their rivalry for the leadership of Germany. Count Otto von Bismarck,

who had been prime minister of Prussia since 1862, declared that this question could be decided only "by blood and steel," and, having secured the support of Italy, hurried on by his policy a struggle that could not fail to be decisive.

Seven weeks determined the point at issue. The campaign, planned by Baron von Moltke, one of the most brilliant military geniuses of the century, was successful beyond all expectation, the reverses of the Austrians and their allies culminating in the rout of Marshal Benedek at Sadowa in Bohemia (July 3, 1866). Prussia dictated a peace whereby Austria was obliged to consent that a new confederation should be formed under the leadership of her rival, from which she herself should be excluded. This was called the North German Confederation, and embraced the states north of the Main, together with Prussia, now enlarged by the addition of Schleswig-Holstein, the kingdom of Hanover, the electorate of Hesse-Cassel, the duchy of Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort.

Another result of the Seven Weeks' War was the cession of Venetia to Victor Emmanuel. Rome only was now wanting to complete the unification of Italy. Garibaldi's watchword, "Rome or death," touched a chord that vibrated in many a heart; and in 1870, in compliance with the popular demand, Victor Emmanuel ordered the occupation of the city by his troops. In December it was declared the national capital, and the following year the Italian Parliament virtually put an end to the temporal power of the pope by restricting his authority to his palace, the Vatican, and certain limited appendages. The work of regeneration has since gone on in Italy; internal improvements are rapidly progressing, and education is beginning to bear its wonted fruits.

Austria, after the Seven Weeks' War, hastened to make the long-needed reforms. The empire was reconstructed

under the ministry of the able statesman, Baron Beust (*boist*), who pursued a peace policy while he skilfully completed his work of re-organization (1867–1871). A reconciliation was effected with Hungary, which was granted an independent government; and in June, 1867, Francis Joseph was crowned at Buda as its *constitutional king*. Austria and Hungary are therefore distinct states, united under one sovereign in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. The Czechs (Slavic inhabitants of Bohemia) and the Poles have since striven, though as yet without success, for a Bohemian and a Polish autonomy similar to that of Hungary.

Revolution of 1868 in Spain.—The revolutionary disturbances of the reign of Isabella II. terminated in 1868 in a military insurrection, which led to the deposition of the queen, and the establishment of a provisional government under General Serrano as president, and General Prim as minister of war. The two great political parties of the day were the Liberal Monarchists and the Republicans, the latter of whom rapidly increased in influence under Castelar and other leaders. For the time, however, a monarchical form of government was retained in Spain, and in 1870 the Cortes offered the crown to Leopold of Hohenzollern. From this, as we shall presently see, resulted the Franco-Prussian War.

Leopold refused the honor. It was finally accepted by Amade'us, second son of Victor Emmanuel, who entered Madrid in January, 1871, as king of Spain. But his throne was beset by difficulties and dangers. The Carlists (adherents of the grand-nephew of the first Don Carlos—see p. 433) raised the banner of revolt; an attempt was even made on his life; so that Amadeus gave up all hope of establishing a firm government, and abdicated in February, 1873.

The Cortes then declared Spain a republic, the honest

Castelar became president, and a violent struggle was maintained with the Carlists during that and the following year. Suddenly, at the close of 1874, by a long-planned *coup d'état*, Prince Alfonso, son of Queen Isabella, was proclaimed king ; the army and navy gave him their support, and the republic was overthrown. Under the able ministry of Canovas del Castillo (1875-1879) the monarchy was established on a firm basis.

Franco-Prussian War.—The wonderful success of Prussia in the Seven Weeks' War created the wildest excitement in France. The people felt jealous and angry. Magenta and Solferino were thrown into the shade by the triumph at Sadowa, and united Germany seemed to be a standing threat to the political influence of France. French honor must be upheld ; and Napoleon III., anxious to regain the popularity which his failure in Mexico had impaired, and emulous of the military exploits of his uncle, eagerly sought an opportunity to measure swords with King William.

An excuse, if wanted, is easily found. When the Spanish offered their vacant throne to Leopold of Hohenzollern, Napoleon entered an indignant protest, declaring that he would never permit the crown of Spain to pass to Leopold or any other Prussian prince ; and when Leopold, to end the difficulty, declined to accept the position, he insisted on an assurance from King William that no Hohenzollern should at any time occupy the Spanish throne, instructing his ambassador at the German court to push the demand with rudeness. This was publicly done at a watering-place which the king was then visiting ; but with no other result than a contemptuous refusal on the part of William. Accordingly France declared war on the 19th of July, 1870.

But Prussia was not taken unawares. Three magnificent armies, which had been prepared in anticipation of such an emergency, were at once set in motion ; and, though

Napoleon III. crossed the frontier and gained a short-lived advantage by taking Saarbruck (see Map) on August 2d, the crown-prince of Prussia entered the French territory on the 4th, and, after defeating Marshal MacMahon's corps at Wörth on the 6th, moved on to Nancy. The two other Prussian armies also crossed into France, thwarted an attempt of Marshal Bazaine to effect a junction with MacMahon, and shut him up in Metz. This city was forthwith invested by Prince Frederick Charles, while the crown-prince advanced against MacMahon, who was at Chalons, forming a new army out of such of his scattered men as could be collected and the re-enforcements which had been sent forward to his support.



From this place, however, MacMahon suddenly started in the direction of Metz, to co-operate with Bazaine; but his purpose was anticipated. He was forced back upon the town of Sedan; where, after a desperate battle, their position being exposed to a murderous fire from the enemies' guns on the neighboring eminences, the French army of 83,000 men, with more than 50 generals, capitulated. The emperor Napoleon, who was with MacMahon, surrendered in person to the Prussian king.

The news of this overwhelming humiliation threw Paris into a fever of revolution. The empire was declared at an end, a republic proclaimed, and a provisional government formed, of which General Trochu (*tro-shü'*), Jules Favre (*zhül fahr'*), and Gambetta, were the leading spirits. The

enemy hastened on toward the capital, and reached it before Trochu had fully completed his arrangements for its defence. Paris was invested ; and while the siege progressed, a series of brilliant successes attended the Prussian arms. Strasburg, after a destructive bombardment, was captured ; and on October 28th, Marshal Bazaine surrendered at Metz with his whole army of 173,000 men. Orleans was taken in December by Prince Frederick Charles, who afterward dispersed the Army of the Loire ; and at last, on January 28th, Paris itself fell.

Before this, an event had taken place which filled the whole Fatherland with unspeakable joy. The southern



WILLIAM I., EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

states, — Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden, — though not members of the North German Confederation, had from the outset co-operated in the war no less efficiently than their sister states of the North ; and now, amid the general exultation that followed the unexampled success of the German arms, an irrepressible desire for German unity animated both North and South. In accordance with this feeling, all the states bound themselves together in one great German Em-

pire. The imperial crown was conferred upon King William of Prussia, while he was still at Versailles, on the 18th of January, 1871, and was made hereditary in his

family. By the Treaty of Frankfort (May 10th) the empire acquired the greater part of Alsace and Lorraine (see Map, p. 465)—5,600 square miles of territory—and France was required to pay Germany a sum equivalent to about one billion dollars. It has been estimated that the war cost her ten million dollars a day.

Napoleon, released by William, joined the empress Eugénie (*u-zha-ne'*) in England, where he resided until his death, January 9, 1873.

The French Republic.—After the war with Prussia, Paris was again the scene of revolution and bloodshed. On the withdrawal of the German troops, Communism once more raised its head; the authorities were obliged to retire; and for a time the city, held in defiance of a government force which was sent to re-establish law and order, trembled under a terrorism that rivalled that of 1793. Many citizens were put to death by a so-called Committee of Public Safety. When the capture of Paris was seen to be inevitable, the miscreants fired it in different quarters, and the Tuileries, Palais Royal, Hôtel-de-Ville, with numerous other public buildings, were destroyed. These horrors were terminated by the entry of the besieging troops and the restoration of the government.

The historian and statesman Thiers, who had been one of the ministers of Louis Philippe, was the first president of the French Republic. On his resignation, May 24, 1873, Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, was elected for a term of seven years.

A prominent event of MacMahon's administration was the trial of Marshal Bazaine for treason in the surrender of Metz. He was condemned to death, but his sentence was commuted to twenty years' imprisonment in the island of Ste. Marguerite, off the south-eastern coast of France. From this place, through the assistance of his wife, he escaped in 1874.

Under Napoleon III. the industries of France were encouraged and her resources developed. Since the payment of the heavy indemnity demanded by Germany, the people have enjoyed unwonted prosperity. Difficulties



MARSHAL MACMAHON, EX-PRESIDENT OF FRANCE.

with his ministry led to the resignation of Pres. MacMahon, January 30, 1879. On the same day the Assembly elected as his successor Jules Grévy, who had been a prominent member of the Paris bar and no less distinguished politically as a friend of popular rights during the later revolutions.

Germany has taken the foremost place among the continental powers ; Prince Bismarck, as imperial chancellor, directs its counsels ; and a splendid army of a million and a half of men stands ready to defend its honor.

China and Japan.—After the Opium War, treaties were concluded by the Chinese government with the United States and France (1844) ; but as the policy pursued toward foreigners was yet far from satisfactory, not many years elapsed before China became involved in another war, with France and Great Britain. In December, 1857, Canton with its million inhabitants was taken, after a day's bombardment, by the allied forces numbering less

than 6,000. The Chinese met with other reverses, and in April, 1858, treaties were arranged at Tientsin, not only with England and France, but also with Russia and the United States. Fresh difficulties, however, arose ; and it was not until the allies threatened the capital Peking with destruction, that the treaties of 1858 were ratified, and a satisfactory peace was concluded (1860).

The empire has since steadily improved ; more friendly feelings are entertained toward the western powers ; foreign ministers now reside at Peking ; and trade with the interior is greatly facilitated. A war which at one time seemed imminent with Japan, was averted in 1874 by negotiation. For such a struggle, the Chinese are ill-prepared ; and the Mantchoo dynasty, in the case of a disastrous result, has every reason to fear an uprising of the natives to restore the ancient line.—The first Chinese telegraph was commenced in 1874, and projects are on foot for connecting China with Europe by rail.

JAPAN, whose ports were open in the sixteenth century to European traders, and many of whose inhabitants, as we have already seen, were converted to Christianity by Jesuit missionaries, afterward found reason to expel all foreigners and quench the new faith in blood. For two centuries the Dutch alone enjoyed commercial relations with the island ; but in 1854, through the management of Commodore Perry, a treaty was concluded between the United States and Japan, by which two ports were opened to American vessels. The ice was now broken ; other nations hastened to make commercial treaties with the long-secluded empire, by which, in course of time, seven ports were thrown open ; and in 1860, a Japanese embassy, the first ever commissioned to a foreign country, was sent to the United States.

This last step occasioned much dissatisfaction in Japan, the conservative party even calling for the expulsion of all

“barbarians.” But when the supremacy of the *Mikado* was firmly established, a change of feeling was brought about, and the imperial government hastened to place itself on a friendly footing with the Western nations.

Since the reception of foreigners into the empire, Japan has made rapid advances in civilization ; the railroad and telegraph have been introduced, post-offices have been established, light-houses are scattered along the coast, and a department of education contributes largely to the progress of the people.

Egypt, now a pashalic virtually independent of Turkey, has improved so rapidly under the present *Khedive*, Ismail Pasha, who succeeded to the government in 1863, as to demand a brief notice. During his administration, the Suez Canal, connecting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, has been opened ; the authority of Egypt has been extended over a vast region, including part of Abyssinia and the kingdom of Darfour, and reaching as far south as the equator. Education, though encouraged, is still backward ; but the khedive is a believer in schools and colleges, railways and telegraphs, and if Egypt continues in the course marked out by him, in extent at least it will soon be entitled to rank among the great empires of the globe.

Latest English History.—After the Civil War in America, a Conservative ministry came into power in England, at the head of which was first the Earl of Derby and afterward Mr. Disraeli (*diz-ra'el-e*). A reform bill was now brought forward and passed (1867), extending the privilege of suffrage to many who had not before enjoyed it ; but in 1868, finding his party in the minority, Disraeli resigned.

Gladstone then became prime minister. His first measure was to allay the discontent of the Irish people by “putting an end to the establishment of the church of Ireland.” In 1870, a bill was passed which greatly advanced the

cause of education ; and the following year all religious tests "for admission to offices or degrees in the universities" were abolished. As a result of these innovations, a reaction in favor of the Conservatives began. In 1874, Gladstone, the Liberal premier, resigned ; and Disraeli, the Conservative leader, at the queen's request, formed a new cabinet.

Meanwhile England had engaged in two foreign wars. King Theodore of Abyssinia having seized and imprisoned the British consul with several other subjects of the queen, an expedition under Sir Robert Napier was sent against him. The strong fortress of Magdala, in which he sought refuge, was taken (1868), and Theodore in despair put an end to his own life.—The second war was with the king of Ashantee, on the Gold Coast in Africa. It terminated in the capture and destruction of Coomassie, the capital of King Koffee (February, 1874). An important result of this war was the abolition of the slave-trade in Ashantee.

In 1874 new districts in Western and Southern Africa, together with the Feejee Islands, were annexed to the British Empire, which now embraces about one-sixth of the habitable globe. That the present sovereign has always had the good of her people at heart cannot be doubted ; nor is it less certain that during her reign, whatever temporary clouds may have obscured the sky, there has been a steady improvement in the condition of the great mass of her subjects.

Events of 1877 and 1878.—During 1875, '76, and '77, Turkey, whose integrity, we have seen, was guaranteed by the treaty that closed the Crimean War (p. 454), became involved in hostilities with several of her Christian dependencies—Herzegovina, Montenegro, Bosnia, Servia, and Bulgaria. The outrages committed by her soldiery upon the Christian inhabitants of these provinces at length provoked loud demands for reform from the European powers.

But Turkey, after some evasion, denied the right of foreign interference, relying, though as she afterward found without reason, on the support of England. Russia, however, on the plea of aiding her Slavonic brethren of the Greek Church, announced her intention of drawing the sword alone, if need be, in their defence, and on the 24th of April, 1877, war was formally declared.

The troops of the czar were at once in motion. While one army crossed the Danube, another operated in Asia and rapidly overran Armenia. Though vigorously resisted, the Russians succeeded in carrying by assault (November 18th) the strong fortress of Kars, near the Black Sea, and thus crippling their antagonists in this quarter.

Meanwhile, after movements of varied success, including one disastrous repulse, the European army of invasion had invested the important post of Plevna, held by the Turkish Pasha Osman. Here the decisive struggle took place. Osman made an heroic defence; but the enemy closed in upon him, and forced him to surrender (December 10th).

The power of the Turks was now broken. The Russians shortly after pushed their way to Adrianople, and were advancing on the capital, when an armistice was arranged. On March 3, 1878, a treaty was signed at San Stefano, which was subsequently modified by a congress of delegates representing the great powers, at Berlin, July 13th. Russia obtains a war-indemnity and southern Bessarabia, retaining besides three posts in Asia; Roumania, Montenegro, and Servia, are made independent; while Turkey relinquishes Cyprus to England, now her declared ally.

On the 9th of January, 1878, Italy was plunged in grief by the death of her beloved king, Victor Emmanuel. His son succeeded as Humbert I.

We must also record the death of Pope Pius IX., February 7, 1878, and the elevation of Cardinal Pecci to his vacant place (February 20th) as Leo XIII.

The Nineteenth Century.

An age of liberal ideas, revolutionary movements, and improvements in the condition of the working-classes, both politically and socially: a period of remarkable progress in education, discovery, and invention.

Geographical explorations conducted in the Arctic regions, particularly by the English navigators Ross, Parry, Franklin, McClure (who succeeded in making the North-west Passage)—and the Americans Kane, Hayes, and Hall. The interior of Southern Africa explored by the indefatigable English traveller Livingstone, in various expeditions between 1849 and 1873, and the American Stanley, 1874-'77.

Important inventions contributing to the comfort and elevation of the human race. Steam applied to multifarious uses. Steamboats plying on the waters. The locomotive brought into a practical form by Stephenson in 1814; railroads the great developers and instruments of progress; in 1830, 206 miles of railway in the world—in 1878, not far from 200,000. The magnetic telegraph, the wonderful invention of the American Morse, patented in 1837, annihilating distance; first telegraph-line established between Baltimore and Washington in 1844—in 1878, more than 450,000 miles of telegraph-line covering the world with a net-work.

Printing-presses brought to remarkable perfection. The sewing-machine, patented by Elias Howe, of Massachusetts, in 1846, a great boon to humanity. The process of vulcanizing India-rubber, which enables it to be employed in the manufacture of many useful articles, invented by Charles Goodyear, of Connecticut. The chemical action of light turned to account in the daguerreotype process, and subsequently in photography. Multitudes of minor inventions.

Science keeping pace with the useful arts. Patient scholars pursuing their researches in all departments with results that encourage them to fresh labors. Egyptian hieroglyphics deciphered. Ancient ruins disintombed, and made to testify of antiquity. The science of Comparative Philology, under the fostering care of profound German scholars, Grimm, Bopp, Schlegel, Pott, Müller, etc., throwing light on the early history of the race. The blessings of education freely offered by systems of public-school instruction. Great Oriental nations laying aside their exclusiveness, and profiting by the enlightenment which they once sedulously avoided.

Literature adorned by many great names, some of which have been already mentioned. American literature rich in all departments; specially noteworthy, the lexicographers Webster and Worcester; the historians Prescott, Bancroft, and Motley; the poets Bryant and Longfellow; the fiction-writers Irving, Cooper, and Hawthorne.

THE CHIEF COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD,

WITH THE RULING SOVEREIGN OR PRESIDENT OF EACH IN 1879.

COUNTRY.	EXECUTIVE HEAD.	TITLE.
Argentine Republic,	N. Avellaneda,	President.
Austro-Hungarian Monar.,	Francis Joseph I.,	Emperor.
Belgium,	Leopold II.,	King.
Bolivia,	Hilarion Daza,	President.
Brazil,	Pedro II.,	Emperor.
Chili,	Anibal Pinto,	President.
China,	Kuangsu,	Emperor.
Denmark,	Christian IX.,	King.
Ecuador,	Ignacio de Veintemilla,	President.
Egypt,	Mohammed Tewfik,	Khedive.
France,	Jules Grévy,	President.
German Empire,	William I.,	Emperor.
Prussia,	William I.,	King.
Saxony,	Albert,	King.
Bavaria,	Louis II.,	King.
Wurtemberg,	Charles I.,	King.
Baden,	Frederick,	Grand-Duke
Great Britain and Ireland,	Victoria,	Queen.
Greece,	George I.,	King.
Italy,	Humbert I.,	King.
Japan,	Mutsu Hito,	Mikado.
Mexico,	Porfirio Diaz,	President.
Netherlands (Holland),	William III.,	King.
Paraguay,	Higinio Uriarte,	Acting Pres.
Persia,	Nassr-ed-Din,	Shah.
Peru,	Mariano Ignacio Prado,	President.
Portugal,	Louis I.,	King.
Roumania,	Charles I. (Hohenzollern),	Prince.
Russia,	Alexander II.,	Emperor.
Sandwich Islands,	Kalakaua I.,	King.
Servia,	Milan IV. (Obrenovitch),	Prince.
Spain,	Alfonso XII.,	King.
Sweden and Norway,	Oscar II.,	King.
Switzerland,	Bernhard Hammer,	President.
Turkey,	Abdul-Hamid II.,	Sultan.
United States of America,	Rutherford B. Hayes,	President.
United States of Colombia,	Gen. Julian Trujillo,	President.
Uruguay,	Col. L. Latorre,	President.
Venezuela,	Gen. F. L. Alcantara,	President.

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